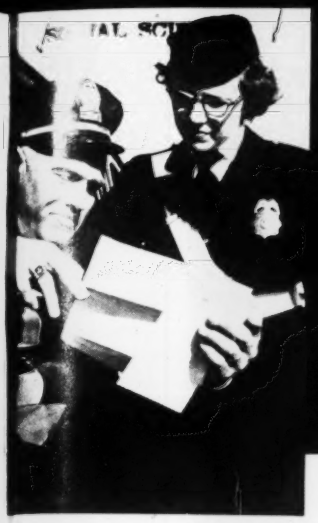

A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO THE PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS OF ALL LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL

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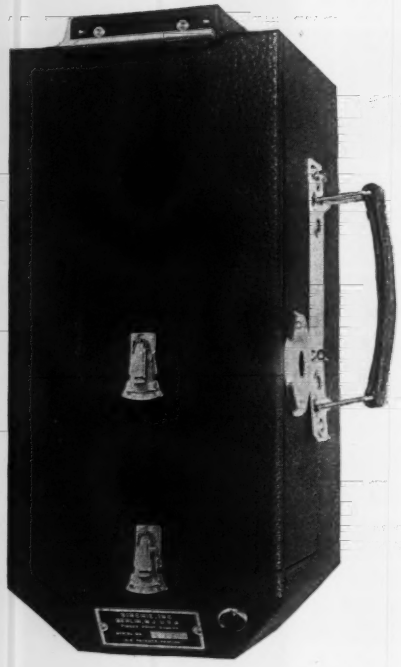

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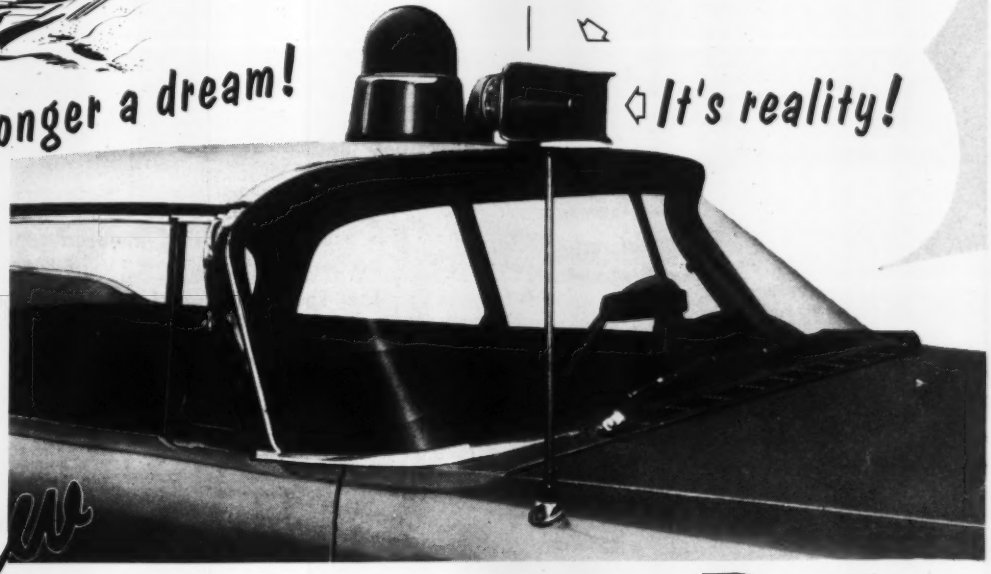

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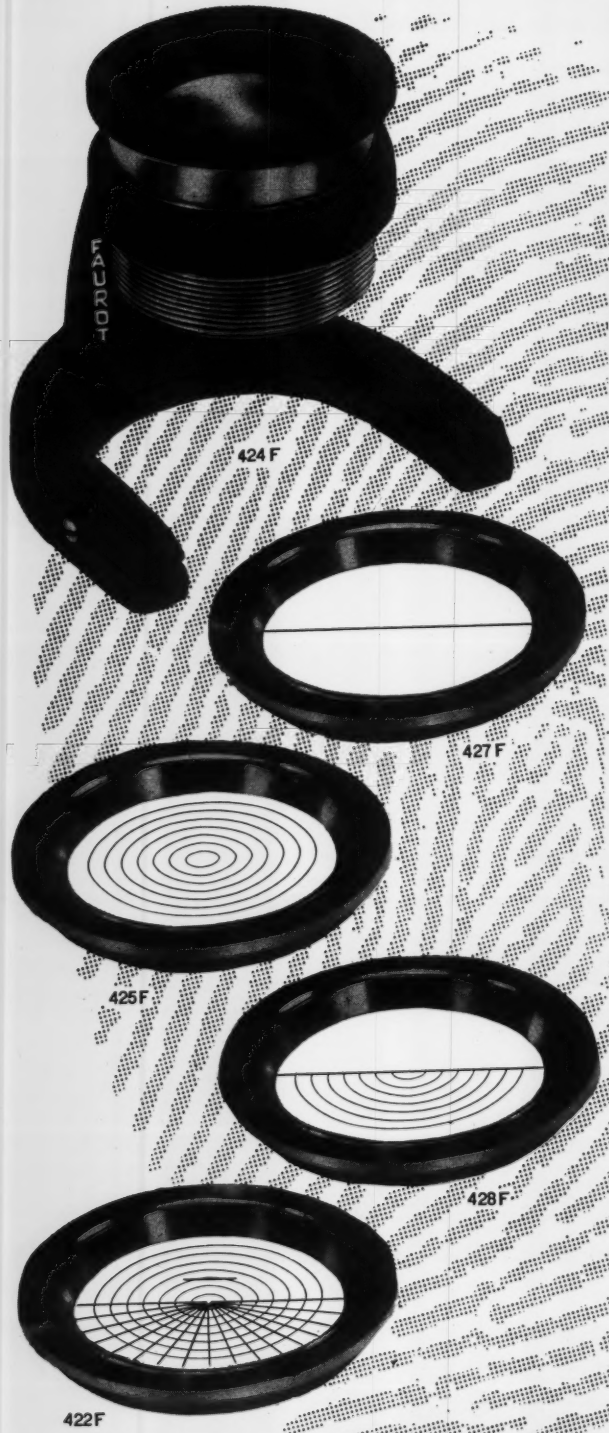

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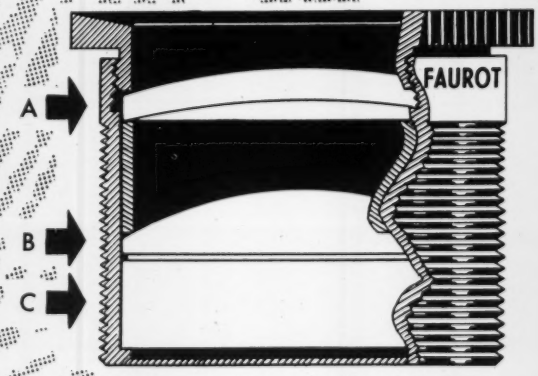

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A Journal Devoted to the Professional Interests of All Law Enforcement Personnel

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POLYGRAPH AND INTERROGATION. Research developments, new techniques, procedures, and related subjects concerned with interrogation. See page 55.

STATISTICS FOR POLICE EFFICIENCY. A new section providing much-needed information concerning statistics as a tool of management. See page 60.

Cover Picture

Policewomen, traffic, arms for the criminal, communications, police patrol, public relations, a wide coverage of many important areas of police activity designed for the Police Officer at all levels from Command to Recruit.

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VOLUME 3
NUMBER 2

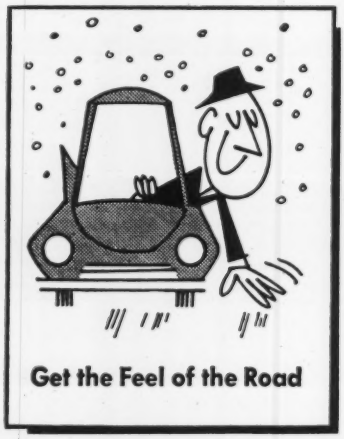
1958

NOVEMBER
DECEMBER

SAFE WINTER DRIVING TIPS

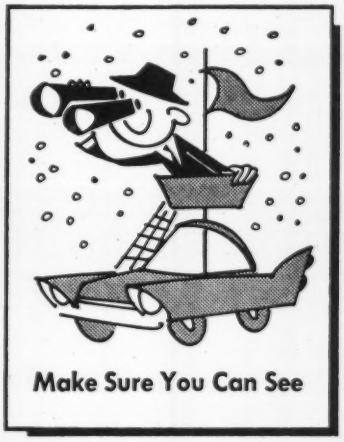
Be Prepared for Winter

Winterize your car, your driving technique and your attitude. Accept the fact that normal speeds are often too fast for winter conditions. Whenever weather is bad, slow down.



Get the Feel of the Road

Test road conditions right away. As soon as you start out (but away from other cars or hazards) try your brakes to find out how slippery the road surface is.



Make Sure You Can See

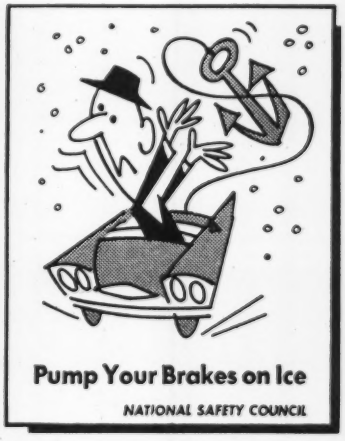
Don't drive blind. Keep windshield and windows clear. Maintain wiper blades, heater and defroster in proper operating condition. Ventilate to keep inside of windows clear.

Take Along Chains

Check your tires. Whether you use regular or snow tires, keep them in good condition. Use reinforced tire chains for deep or hard-packed snow, ice, and in emergency situations.

Don't Follow Too Closely

Following too closely, always a hazard, is especially dangerous in winter. Keep well back of the vehicle ahead to give yourself plenty of room for an emergency stop.



Pump Your Brakes on Ice

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL

To stop quickly, pump your brakes in a series of fast applications. Jamming on the brakes will lock the brakes and throw the car into an uncontrollable skid. Keep your head.

FROM NSC's "TRAFFIC SAFETY" MAGAZINE

Arming the Criminal

By John A. Hurley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Hurley graduated from Rutgers University in June of 1957, with Phi Beta Kappa status, and is a Commissioned 2nd Lieutenant in the USAF Reserve. He is entering his second year in Rutgers Law School, meanwhile serving as Law Clerk in the Office of the Attorney General, Department of Law and Public Safety, Trenton, New Jersey. He brings to the attention of the reader in the following article information concerning the availability of automatic arms which is cause for sober thought on the part of both the police and legislators.*

AUTOMATIC weapons, such as submachine guns, machine guns, and automatic rifles are appearing on the American crime scene in ever-increasing numbers. Unless prompt legislative and enforcement action is taken, the police agencies of the nation will surely be faced with a drastic problem. The new rash of automatic weapons may be traced to several main factors: 1. The ease of obtaining supposedly deactivated war trophies—"dewats"—at a small price and without a permit. 2. A steadily increasing group of collectors who specialize in such weapons. 3. Conversion of legitimate semi-automatic weapons to full-automatic.

In the 1920's, the Tommy gun or Chicago piano occupied an almost sacred place in the sensational "cops and robbers" folklore. The Thompson gun with its large (50 or 100 round) drum, compensator, and wooden stock was the weapon used in all movie sieges and in many actual encounters. During the late 30's, the submachine gun was relegated to a minor role. In the second World War, the submachine gun was used extensively by the Allied and German forces in the European and African theaters, and by the Allies in the Pacific jungle fighting. For ease of production and maintenance, the submachine gun (or "machine pistol," as it is known overseas) became a stripped down instrument of immense close-in firepower. For example, the American M-3 "grease-gun" is a simpler and less expensive cousin of the Thompson gun. Millions of all types of these weapons were manufactured and distributed to regular and guerilla troops. The British Sten, German Schmeisser, Bergmann, Steyr-Solothurn, Italian Beretta, and a whole family of Russian submachine guns were the principal foreign contributions. Most of these weapons are chambered for the 9mm Luger pistol cartridge whereas the American submachine guns use the 45 automatic Colt pistol round.

Following hostilities, many American soldiers brought home an operative submachine gun as a war souvenir. A well-publicized Treasury Department campaign succeeded in the deactivation of most of these lethal trophies.

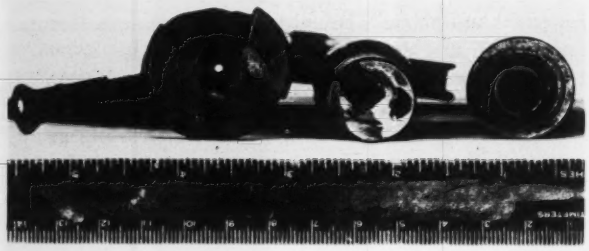
Beginning in 1956, the idea of collecting full-automatic weapons has swept the ever enthusiastic ranks of "gun nuts." The weapons and sports magazines have been flooded with advertisements offering all types of automatic arms. These include: Vickers, Browning, and Hotchkiss machine guns on tripods with all accouterments for less than $100, Sten guns for $12.50 (extra clips for $2.50 and official manual for $1.00), various German and Italian machine pistols with bayonets for $34.95. A typical advertising squib concerning "deactivation" is that these weapons have been "legally plugged under U. S. government supervision without interfering in any way with their external appearance or mechanical functioning." This usually entails closing the barrel and spot-welding it to the breech. It is but the work of a moment to break the weld and install a new barrel since these arms were all designed for battlefield replacement of parts.

The National Firearms Act of 1934 (48 Stat. 1237) was the first comprehensive federal measure in the automatic arms field. The passage of this act provided two main enforcement weapons: a transfer tax of $200 and a requirement for serial marking. The legislative history of this act and its amendments and the Treasury Department's vigorous attempts at enforcement have often been attacked by responsible citizens who rely on the Constitutional bar against infringement of the citizen's right to "keep and bear arms." However, in discussing the weapons enumerated in the Act, the U.S. Supreme Court held that there is no reasonable relation between the enumerated weapons and a well-regulated militia. (*U.S. v. Miller*, 307 U.S. 174, 83 L.Ed. 1206, 59 S. Ct. 816, 1939). The definition of machine gun in this act encompasses all types of full-automatic weapons: "any weapon which shoots, or is designed to shoot, automatically or semiautomatically, more than one shot, without manual reloading, by a single function of the trigger." An example of a successful prosecution of a submachine gun possessor under this Act is *Montgomery v. U.S.*, 146 F.2d 142 (C.A. 4, 1945).

Another significant measure is the Federal Firearms Act of 1938 (52 Stat. 1252). This act regulates the shipment of firearms in interstate and foreign commerce. Its prohibition against shipping or receiving stolen weapons and the requirement for serial numbers might be useful in a campaign against automatic weapons.

Address: Mr. John A. Hurley, 113 Ridge Road, Rutherford, New Jersey.

Sgt. A. O. Hoppe of the N.J.S.P. Bureau of Identification and the author inspect: (top left) Reising Model 50 .45 smg; (middle left) Schmeisser MP 40 9mm Luger smg; (bottom left) Thompson MIAI .45 smg; (to right) M3 .45 smg; (bottom right) Mauser 7.63mm semi-automatic pistol with shoulder stock-holster. The two magazines at top are 32 round Luger components. Hurley holds a .351 Winchester with silencer converted to full-automatic, which fires 9mm Luger ammo from a 32 round magazine.



(Left to right) A "deactivated" Schmeisser's bolt, barrel, and barrel collar. Note crude attempts to remove welds by drilling.

This Schmeisser automatic weapon was "deactivated" by: welds at breech and muzzle ends of the barrel, between the barrel nut and collar, and by removal of the magazine spring and firing pin. Visual inspection indicates that hacksaw was used to break the weld between the barrel nut and collar.

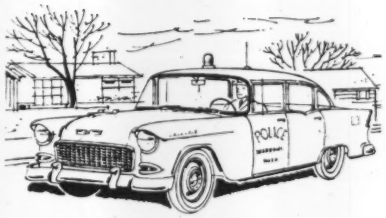
A well-known state law dealing with firearms is the New York "Sullivan Law." (Penal Law, sec. 1897) Section 1-a of this law has a pertinent description: "a machine gun is a weapon of any description, irrespective of size, by whatever name known, loaded or unloaded, from which a number of shots or bullets may be rapidly or automatically discharged from a magazine with one continuous pull of the trigger and including a submachine gun. A person who possesses or uses such machine gun is guilty of a felony." However, when comparing Sullivan Law court experience with pistols, it is doubtful if a prosecution would be successful against someone who had possession of an inoperative weapon. Section 1896 defines selling, giving, and transporting of a machine gun or submachine gun as a felony.

Of great concern is the recent spate of converted weapons appearing in crimes of a felonious nature, particularly those acts committed by juvenile delinquents. Many of the most popular 22 caliber automatic loading rifles can be easily converted to full-automatic simply by filing the sear. This can also be done with a so-called "automatic pistol" and after a stock and clip extension are fitted, the weapon becomes a submachine gun. Recent New Jersey holdups and homicides have featured altered .22 rifles with the bulk of the stock cut off and the barrel cut back to only 2 inches.

Presently, law enforcement agencies are hamstrung by inadequate laws covering automatic weapons. If the present trend continues, the police will be outgunned by criminals equipped with easily concealable and legally purchased automatic weapons. Possible preventive measures include:

1. Tightening of the National Firearms Act to cover all automatic weapons, whether deactivated or not.
2. An improved and permanent deactivation method.
3. A uniform state code to cover the intra-state aspects of automatic weapons.
4. Uniform state laws relating to the sale of all weapons, whether concealable or not. (Registration, permits, age limits, etc.)
5. State laws to prevent the use of imitation or actually deactivated weapons in the perpetration of a crime.
6. Increased interchange of information on weapons among all enforcement agencies.
7. Better security by police, militia, etc. to prevent theft of their legitimately possessed automatic arms.
8. Transfer of Federal firearms law enforcement from the Treasury Department (Alcohol and Tobacco Tax Division) to the Department of Justice. Courtroom experience indicates that too many judges feel these laws are for the purpose of raising revenue, not for preventing dangerous weapons from being used in crime. (cf. *U.S. v. Adams,* 11 F. Supp. 216, [S.D., Fla., 1935] wherein it is stated, "The National Firearms Act is a revenue measure.")

Unless a comprehensive program of legislation and enforcement is soon executed, the anti-social elements will have every opportunity to become dangerously well-armed. ★★★



The One-Man Patrol Car

By Richard T. Runyan and F. Samuel Ostertag

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the third in a series of eleven articles appearing in consecutive issues of* POLICE *dealing with the techniques of* ONE-MAN PATROL CAR OPERATION. *They are based upon a series of training bulletins developed by the Police Department of Corpus Christi, Texas, implementing its conversion to the one-man patrol car system. The first article appeared in the May-June issue of the* JOURNAL.

OVERTAKING AND STOPPING AUTOMOBILES

Training Bulletin No. 3

ALERTNESS and freedom from distraction have allowed the one-man patrol to establish a generally better safety record than has been made for two-man patrol units. Experience has proved that an officer patrolling alone in an automobile is safer than he is when accompanied by another officer. Because he is alone and has no one with whom to share responsibility, the single officer must give his fullest attention to police duties. He is faced with no distractions other than those presented by his beat. He is dependent completely upon himself for his own safety and welfare and is therefore reasonably cautious when approaching danger; because of that caution, he is better prepared to take care of the unexpected and less likely to be surprised.

While alertness and attention to duties may be considered major factors in establishing a good safety record, training in the proper techniques of patrolling must also be given strong emphasis.

Procedures for stopping suspects vary according to the immediate reason for stopping the person. This bulletin will outline the procedure to be followed when a patrol car stops another vehicle for a traffic violation and when the officer has no reason to suspect the occupant of the car of being guilty of any violation other than a traffic violation. Caution should be exercised at all times, but control of a situation can be lost through an appearance of undue caution or an appearance of being "trigger-happy."

Position of the Patrol Car—The lone officer must divide his attention between driving his vehicle and communicating with the violator and should avoid pulling along side the violator's car. The violator should be kept at a disadvantage by forcing him to turn his head or use his mirror in order to see the police car.

The officer preparing to stop a violator should drive so that the police car remains behind the violator's car, but he should maintain a position that will allow the violator to see the officer's hand signals in his rear-view mirror. The patrol car's position behind the violator has the added advantage of allowing the officer to observe the reactions of the person being stopped.

Violators might be encouraged to try to outrun the police car if the siren or red light are used prematurely. The light and siren should remain off until the officer is in the pull-over position and has exhausted other stopping techniques as outlined below.

Preparation for Stopping a Violator—It is not always possible to select a completely satisfactory place for issuing a summons or making an arrest. However, if possible, the officer should stop a violator on a business street, where the officer has the distinct psychological advantage of the violator's embarrassment, availability of public telephones, and availability of other persons in case assistance is needed.

Traffic hazards should be avoided. The officer should look ahead to select a satisfactory place to stop a violator before directing him to pull out of traffic. Any vacant area along the curb, including bus, taxi, and loading zones will help keep the stopped car out of the path of moving traffic.

Ordering the Violator to Stop—The violator should not be ordered to stop until he is close enough to the pre-selected parking space for the officer to indicate the space clearly. The officer should get the violator's attention by a series of short horn blasts. Red lights and siren should be used only if the driver does not appear to recognize a police car or if the driver refuses to follow directions.

Use lights if the violator fails to heed the horn signals. It should be remembered that construction of many cars is such that a driver using an inside rear-view mirror cannot see the red lights mounted on top of the police car. The officer should use the siren if he has been unable to stop the violator through the use of the horn and red light.

A driver should not be expected lightly to make additional violations after noticing he is under surveillance by an officer of the law. The driver must be given sufficient time to recognize the police car and to follow directions of the officer with safety and without making additional violations. Hand signals should be used to indicate the desired action to the person being stopped. Voice commands are not practical between two cars on a public street.

Be alert for a sudden stop by the

Address: Chief Richard T. Runyan, Police Department, Corpus Christi, Texas.

Assisting Office Captain R. E. Chapman illustrates proper procedure of parking and locking vehicle prior to assisting arresting officer in transportation of prisoner to jail.

violator. He may be frightened into erratic driving.

Safety Precautions—The lone officer must take every precaution to protect himself. There is always the possibility that in stopping a traffic violator, the officer is stopping a person with a more serious violation on his conscience.

The dispatcher is the only partner present with the lone officer. The officer must keep his partner informed. Before leaving the police car a broadcast should be made of

Patrol Captain R. E. Chapman on the right, Patrolman Trammell on the left, and Vice Squad Officer Jack Vines portraying prisoner, illustrate the method of transportation to jail with suspect. This procedure after one officer riding One-Man Patrol has parked and locked his police vehicle to accompany the other officer.

Patrolman J. R. Trammell and Patrolman G. E. Burch demonstrate the loading of a prisoner after he has been properly searched and handcuffed. Acting as prisoner is W. C. Teter, Detective.

the unit number, location, situation being handled, and the license number of the car being stopped. If it appears aid is needed, remain in or near the police vehicle until the requested aid arrives.

NEVER MAKE A STOP WITHOUT REMEMBERING THAT UNEXPECTED EVENTS CAN OCCUR AT ANY MOMENT.

Watch for Training Bulletin No. 4, THE ONE-MAN PATROL CAR—*Approaching a Stopped Automobile,* in the next issue of POLICE. ★★★

Chief Runyan of the Corpus Christi Police Department and Assistant City Manager Ostertag go over plans for the next issue of the One-Man Patrol Car Training Bulletins.

The Admissibility of Confessions in Evidence in Criminal Courts

By Aloysius J. Melia

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is the son of a retired patrolman and holds the B.A. degree from Fordham College and a law degree from Fordham Law School. He was admitted to the bar in 1939 and after two years in private practice, joined the staff of District Attorney Hogan. After service with the Navy where he was elevated to the rank of Lieutenant Senior Grade, he returned to the Office of the District Attorney, serving in the Indictment Bureau and as Trial Man in the Courts of Special Sessions and General Sessions. He was later second in charge of the Manhattan District Attorney's Rackets Bureau and subsequently, was appointed by Police Commissioner Stephen P. Kennedy as Deputy Police Commissioner in charge of the Juvenile Aid Bureau.*

WE are witnessing a paradoxical development in the administration of criminal law. At a time when crime is on the increase, and the criminal is making maximum use of all the most recent technological developments, *in the name of personal freedom*, the legal orbits in which law enforcement may operate has been decreased. It is important to consider the trend of decisions emanating from the Supreme Court of the United States and examine their impact on law enforcement.

The Court does not have supervisory powers over state criminal court proceedings except to the extent that the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment permits it.

Beginning in 1936, the Supreme Court reviewed at least twenty state court convictions that were based on pre-trial confessions. In these cases, which came from the four corners of the nation, convictions were reversed in all but five. The orthodox rule until 1936 was simply this: if the confession was voluntary, it was admissible. If it was involuntary, that is, induced by force or threats, it was not admissible *unless* there was other evidence—independent circumstances—corroborating the truthfulness of the involuntary confession.

In 1940 the Court decided the case of *Chambers* v. *Florida*. There, several young men were arrested on suspicion of murder and held incommunicado. They were subjected to protracted questioning for five days with only short periods for food and rest. Confessions were obtained which resulted in a conviction. The Supreme Court reversed the conviction saying that the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed procedural standards in the trial of persons charged with a crime and that the confessions in this case resulted from compulsion.

In 1941 a celebrated decision was handed down in the case of *Lisenba* v. *California*. Here, a mature man was subjected to incommunicado detention and prolonged questioning. His confession was used to convict him.

The Court announced a clear departure from the orthodox rule – i.e the test of voluntariness – when it said:

"The aim of the requirement of due process is not to exclude presumptively false evidence, but to prevent fundamental unfairness in the use of evidence whether true or false."

Up to this point the reason for not admitting an involuntary confession into evidence was because there could be no firm conviction that it was a true confession. This laid the door open to the conviction of innocent defendants. However, where you had independent facts and circumstances which corroborated the involuntary confession, that danger did not exist. The Court could place credence in the involuntary confession because it was supported by evidence independent of it. In the *Lisenba* case the Court announced a new rule which was not dependent on the truth of the confession. It based its decision on fair play.

The Court said:

"To extort testimony from a defendant by physical torture in the presence of the court is not due process. The case stands no better if torture induces an extra-judicial confession which is used as evidence in the Courtroom."

The Court also said that where there is a question as to coercion, it would accept the decision of the briefs of the fact unless they arrived at a patently false conclusion.

In 1942 in *Ward* v. *Texas*, a man was arrested without a warrant and thereafter taken to strange towns in five different counties. He was continuously questioned, threatened with violence and taken at night to lonely and isolated places. The Court said: Any one of these grounds would be sufficient cause for reversal. All of them are to be found in this case. The Court held that the use of a confession obtained under these circumstances amounted to a denial of due process and reversed the conviction.

In 1944 in *Ashcraft* v. *Tennessee*, the Court injected

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a new concept. Ashcraft, a mature and intelligent man, was convicted of murder. For 36 hours after his arrest, he was held incommunicado without sleep or rest, and was continuously questioned by a series of experienced investigators and lawyers.

The Court said that the surrounding facts and circumstances leading up to the confession were "inherently coercive." It was not concerned with the truth or falsity of the confession.

Judge Jackson was greatly troubled by the majority opinion in that up to this time the Court had not prohibited the interrogation of a suspect while in the custody of state authorities. As a matter of fact, the Court only inferentially referred to this aspect of the case, but there was no holding to that effect.

In the same year, in *Lyons* v. *Oklahoma*, the Court answered Judge Jackson's complaint in the Ashcraft case when it said:

"The mere questioning of a suspect while in the custody of police officers is *not* prohibited either as a matter of common law or due process."

In 1945 the Court decided *Malinski* v. *New York*. Here another refinement of the confession problem was announced. Malinski was arrested in the morning and taken to a hotel where he was stripped of his clothing and kept incommunicado for three hours. Seven hours later he confessed. For the following three days he was intermittently questioned in the hotel room. At 2:00 A.M. on the fifth day, he made another confession at the police station. At the trial, only the second confession was introduced in evidence for the reason that apparently the first confession was coerced. However, in summation, the prosecutor referred to the first confession which was not in evidence. The Court reversed the conviction because the first confession was coerced and use was made of it at the trial in summation. As an aside, the Court condemned incommunicado detention of a suspect.

Apparently, if no reference had been made to the first confession, the conviction would not have been reversed even though coerced. This would seem to indicate that in 1945 the Court reverted to the pre-1936 rule that the test was voluntariness and not procedural due process. They were not primarily concerned with "conduct that shocks the conscience" but were more interested in the voluntary nature of the confession.

In 1948, in *Haley* v. *Ohio*, a 15-year-old boy was arrested and questioned at headquarters by different police officers from midnight until 5:00 A.M., at which time he confessed. He was held incommunicado for three additional days. A lawyer retained by Haley's mother tried, unsuccessfully, to see him on two different occasions *after* the confession. The age of the suspect, the length of the nighttime interrogation, and the absence of friend or counsel to advise him during his detention and questioning, were considered decisive by the Court when it said:

"The fourteenth amendment prohibits the police from using private, secret custody of either man or child as a device for bringing confessions from them."

From that statement you gather that the Court is not the least bit concerned with whether a confession is true or false. This is a flat prohibition of incommunicado detention without regard to the age of the person involved. The fact of coercion was immaterial.

In 1949 in *Watts* v. *Indiana*, the Court pointed out that Watts was arrested and detained incommunicado for six days without friends, counsel or advice as to his constitutional rights. No statute or case law has appeared thus far standing for the proposition that an accused in police custody must be advised of his constitutional rights, and, indeed, this case is not authority for that proposition.

However, the Court did say by way of dicta:

"A statement to be voluntary, of course, need not be volunteered, but if it is the produce of sustained pressure by the police, it does not issue from free choice. When a suspect speaks because he is overborne, it is immaterial whether he has been subjected to a physical or mental ordeal. Eventual yielding to questioning under such circumstances is plainly the produce of the suction process of interrogation and, therefore, the reverse of voluntary."

In 1951 the Court heard *Gallegos* v. *Nebraska*, a most interesting case. Gallegos was an itinerant Mexican farmhand who was unable to speak English. He was arrested in Texas at the request of the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service. The arrest had to do with his alleged illegal presence in the United States. On the fifth day of his detention he confessed to the slaying of his paramour in Nebraska. Both the Nebraskan and the Texan authorities were completely ignorant of this crime. This was an entirely voluntary confession. On the eleventh day of his detention he was taken to Nebraska. On his arrival there, he was again questioned and again confessed. After 25 days of detention, he was arraigned and subsequently convicted of Manslaughter.

The question presented to the Supreme Court was whether the confessions obtained during the detention, while the accused was without aid of counsel, were admissible in evidence. The Court affirmed the conviction and said:

"So far as due process affects admissions before trial of the defendant, the accepted test is their voluntariness."

Here the Court came full circle back to 1936. So, despite the opinions between 1940 and 1951, in this 1951 case we have reverted to the 1936 rule, the test being voluntariness and not violation of procedural due process.

Up to this point we have considered convictions in state courts reviewed by the Supreme Court of the United States.

In the celebrated *Mallory* case, a Federal conviction was under review. A vicious rape was perpetrated on the complainant on April 7, 1954. The defendant, a prime suspect, was apprehended on April 8, between 2:00

and 3:00 P.M., and denied guilt. He was questioned for four hours at the headquarters of the District of Columbia police. During this period, he agreed to a lie detector examination. He was given food and drink. The polygraph operator began the examination of the defendant at about 8:00 P.M. The examination extended over one and one-half hours. The test indicated that the suspect may have committed the crime. Immediately thereafter, he confessed.

At 10:00 P.M., the police unsuccessfully attempted to arraign the prisoner. The defendant was next examined by a coroner who noted no physical or psychological coercion. Between 11:30 P.M. and 12:30 A.M., April 9, 1957, the defendant was confronted by the complainant and several policemen to whom he repeated his confession. He was arraigned the morning of April 9. At his trial, one year later, his signed confession was introduced into evidence and he was convicted of rape.

The Supreme Court held that the confession was inadmissible. Particular reliance was placed on the fact that it was obtained while the defendant was unlawfully detained in violation of the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure (promulgated in 1946) which provides that:

"An officer making an arrest shall take the arrested person without unnecessary delay before the nearest available commissioner."

In 1943 the Court had concerned itself with the problem of *prompt arraignment* in a Federal case. In the case of *McNabb* v. *U.S.*, 335 U.S. 410, the Court discussed the duty of an arresting officer and said:

". . . he (person arrested) is not to be taken to Police Headquarters in order to carry out a process of inquiry that lends itself, even if not so designed, to eliciting damaging statements to support the arrest and ultimately his guilt."

The *Mallory* case further delimits the time allowed the police in the investigation of crime.

This line of Federal cases excludes confessions by reason of the time element alone. Necessarily, many guilty persons whose acts were unwitnessed and who *cannot* be properly interrogated, will, therefore, frustrate the law. Innocent persons may, of necessity, have to be arraigned quickly and a police record made against them because no reasonable time will be available to clear them by interrogation and investigation. Time is as necessary to prove innocence as to establish guilt.

In New York, the statute corresponding to the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure (Rule 5 (a)) requires that: The defendant must in all cases be taken before the magistrate without unnecessary delay."

In New York, the power to arrest carries with it the power to detain, but must be carefully and discreetly exercised. (*People* v. *Elmore*, 297 N.Y. 397; *People* v. *Snyder*, 297 N.Y. 81). In *People* v. *Mummiani*, 258 N.Y. 394, the Court of Appeals (1932) said:

"The wilful violation by the police of the statute which calls for prompt arraignment is a crime (P.L. 1841). An officer who holds a prisoner in custody instead of taking him to the nearest magistrate without unreasonable delay should be disciplined by his superiors and prosecuted by the district attorney like any other malefactor. A district attorney who wilfully neglects to initiate such a prosecution after knowledge of the offense may be guilty of a crime himself."

In New York, a confession obtained during a period of unnecessary delay presents a question for the court, which is resolved by the facts of each case. The "unnecessary delay" is one factor to be considered in determining whether or not a confession was voluntary, but delay does not make the confession inadmissible per se. (*Stein* v. *People of N.Y.*, 346 U.S. 156 (1953); *People* v. *Trinchillo*, 2 App. Div. 2d. 146). However, on the Federal level, the *Mallory* case excluded the confession solely because of the "unnecessary delay" in arraignment

In *People* v. *Snyder*, 297 N.Y. 81 (92), the arraignment was 33 hours after arrest. It was contended by the people that where there is a serious crime such as murder, with no eye-witnesses, investigation was necessary. This, plus an oral admission, warranted holding defendant to reduce the statement to writing and to have defendant re-enact his part in the crime. The Court of Appeals said:

"This could be no excuse under the statute and it was not permissible for a jury to find that it was. We have heretofor disapproved of the practice of unnecessarily delaying arraignments."

In *Stein* v. *N.Y.*, 346 U.S. 156, the Reader's Digest Murder case, the U.S. Supreme Court reviewed New York State Criminal Procedure. In determining the issue as to whether a confession had been coerced, the Court found no violation of a Constitutional right. It said, under the New York practice the trial judge must exclude any confession if he is convinced as a matter of law it was not freely made, or if the decision that it was freely made would be against the weight of evidence. But if the voluntariness issue presents a fair question of fact, the jury shall determine its voluntary character and truthfulness.

In *Wolf* v. *Colorado*, 338 U.S. 25, The Supreme Court indicated that what was improper in Federal cases, was not necessarily unconstitutional and improper in a state court.

In the *Mallory* case, which originated in a Federal Court, the Supreme Court reviewed Federal Rules and the action of police in the District of Columbia. We cannot yet be sure of the effect of the case on state prosecutions. The doctrine of *Wolf* v. *Colorado* indicates a "hands-off" policy on the part of the court; however, the court could find on the facts of a particular case that a violation of due process existed and upset a state conviction based on a confession obtained during an "unnecessary delay" in arraignment.

In *Crooker* v. *California*, Crooker argued that his con-

fession was obtained before he consulted his attorneys and during a 14-hour detention between arrest and arraignment. The issue was not "the arraignment without unnecessary delay," but rather was Crooker denied his rights without due process in violation of the Constitution.

The Court held 5-to-4 that a suspect in state custody has no Constitutional right to advice or counsel before being questioned by the police.

Today in a state criminal court, if you have a voluntary confession and the element of undue delay in arraignment is also present, the confession is admissible. The conviction will not be set aside either in State or Federal Court even though there is a state statute requiring prompt arraignment. The legal effect of this is that the officer who failed to duly arraign the defendant violated the law for which *he* may be prosecuted. But it does not affect the defendant's conviction. In a Federal prosecution the law is otherwise.

Some argue that the role of the Court should be confined to that of insuring justice in a particular case. The orthodox rule requiring a showing that the confession was not coerced appears to be salutary for the very reason that a coerced confession is not necessarily a true one. Thus, the ends of justice may be frustrated by the conviction of an innocent party. On the other hand, it is argued, for the Court to say that undue delay in arraignment in and of itself vitiates the confession, is to blind oneself to the facts of life. If the undue delay results in a voluntary truthful confession, no moral injustice was done to the defendant. Should he escape unpunished, an injustice is done to the community and a criminal is free to cause further havoc.

It seems unrealistic to prohibit a reasonable period of interrogation of a suspect. If the trend of the decisions continue to the point where they squarely hold that there may be no interrogation after arraignment, then it would be incumbent on a police officer to arrest one who enters the station house for the purpose of falsely confessing to a headline murder. A cursory interrogation many times reveals that he had absolutely nothing to do with the crime.

The Court tells us that law enforcement has adequate scope to protect the public in that a police officer may arrest on probable cause. What is probable cause? Invariably it is a question of fact for a jury to determine in a false arrest suit against a police officer.

While law enforcement affirms the necessity of preserving basic individual rights and liberties, we cannot forget that they become meaningless in an atmosphere beset with crime and violence. The right to walk the streets in safety, to be secure in our homes, in our persons, and in our property, are rights certainly on an equal footing with any others spelled out in the Constitution. In fact, they are so basic to a free society as to obviate the need for reducing them to writing. We have no desire for the controls or methods of a police state, but we do require adequate tools with which to do the job. ★★★

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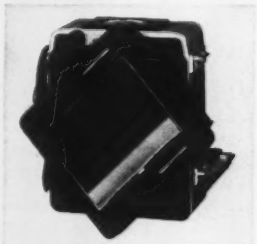

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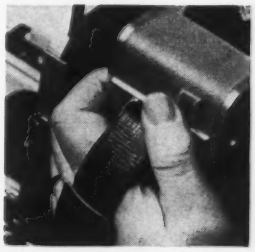

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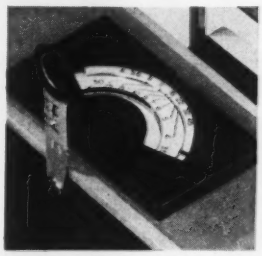

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Automobile Fire Investigation

By the Staff of the Western Division, National Automobile Theft Bureau, Chicago, Illinois

EDITOR'S NOTE: *An automobile fire of incendiary origin is, in the language of the investigator—Arson, until proven otherwise, and Arson is a crime calling for prompt, decisive investigation and prosecution of those responsible. Law enforcement officials and others investigating this type of offense stand between the act of Arson and its successful culmination, between the criminal and the public and are the individuals in a position to prevent and reduce the number of criminal acts in this category.*

The JOURNAL *is pleased to present the first of a series of four articles prepared by the staff of the Western Division of the National Automobile Theft Bureau with headquarters in Chicago, Illinois, setting forth tested methods and techniques for the successful approach to automobile fire investigation. This important tool information will prove of significant interest to the police and to other law enforcement officials throughout the country.*

THE tremendous increase in automobile production since the cessation of World War II, the unprecedented number of vehicles presently registered in the United States and the resulting demand for financing and insurance facilities, has created an automobile fire problem which has increased in importance and in direct ratio to the exposure indicated. Records will bear out the statement that in the majority of instances it is the financed and insured vehicle which burns and it is not surprising to observe that the number of questionable claims reported has arisen in proportion to the increased production and sale of motor vehicles.

The great majority of fire claims results from the premeditated and wilful burning of property, "incendiary fires," and in the language of the investigator, this is "Arson."

The automobile, due to its movability and varying value, and the opportunity presented to secure a mortgage greater than value, offers a temptation to those individuals who seek to derive a profit or to escape an obligation by the wilful destruction of insured property. The prevalence of this vicious practice in particular areas of the nation indicates both a disregard for the law and a lack of fear of detection in the minds of the offenders.

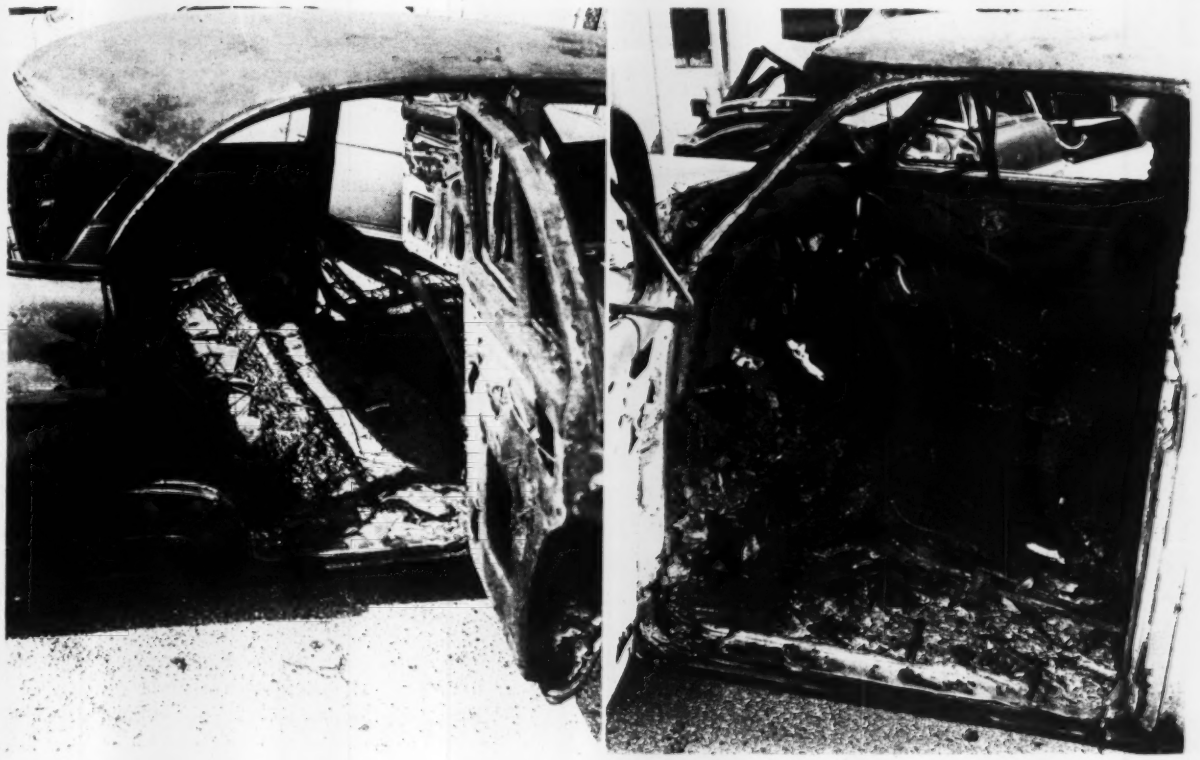
An analysis of figures compiled by states by the Western Division of the National Automobile Theft Bureau, based on total automobile fire losses reported by member insurance companies, indicates a marked disparity among the 18 middle western states in this Division's territory with respect to the number of automobiles reported burned for each 100,000 vehicles registered.

In a given year this ratio has varied from a low of 1.92 total fire losses reported in State A for each 100,000 vehicles registered to a high of 36.16 similar losses reported in State B. In addition a spot map maintained on a state-wide basis of each high loss state in Western Division territory has shown a concentration of fires in certain counties. Further analysis of these areas produces no evidence of any special or particular physical hazard which could account for this concentration of losses.

To generalize and by way of summary it would seem that in those sections of a state where farms are productive and business conditions are generally good, the population will be law-abiding citizens—demanding good law enforcement and with few total automobile fire losses. Conversely in those counties having marginal land and with a poor standard of living and limited production, one end result will be an unusual and large number of automobile fire losses reported.

The spot mapping of automobile fires has produced some evidence that certain incendiary fires are the direct result of activities on the part of a limited number of unscrupulous automobile dealers, salesmen or finance companies. In some cases a vehicle may be sold by a dealer with recourse. In non-technical language, recourse means that in the event the purchaser is unable to pay for the car, the dealer can be forced to pay any balance due. This arrangement is an entirely proper business transaction but may cause certain automobile fires when other unfavorable conditions are present. In other instances, a vehicle sold and guaranteed by a dealer may be returned by the purchaser following mechanical failure or breakdown. Rather than abide by the guarantee given, an unscrupulous salesman may offer a veiled intimation or an outright proposal that the car be burned, because it is insured, to relieve both the seller and purchaser of an outstanding obligation. Other related facts have been developed by the spot mapping of fires and from this data a policy of selective enforcement has been adopted to concentrate effort in investigating fires to those areas presenting the greatest problem and challenge.

Facts and figures as outlined have proven that most total automobile fires are of incendiary origin. To further substantiate this conclusion, numerous laboratory tests have been made and actual experiments conducted in an effort to totally destroy the modern automobile. From these tests it has been concluded that shorting of the dome light, head-



Interior photographs of late model automobile completely destroyed by fire showing complete interior destruction as a result of incendiary fire. Note melted glass, condition of steering wheel, springs and dash.

lights, battery, ignition, generator or other wiring does not of itself cause fire except where inflammables were present. In numerous experiments gasoline has been poured on a hot motor and on a hot manifold and ignited by means of a spark. In each case when the excess gasoline was consumed it was found the damage resulting was confined to the insulation on the wiring.

Other tests were made in efforts to burn mats, headlining material, upholstery, seat covers, foam rubber and undercoating materials and attempts have been made to start fires with burning cigarettes. From these experiments it has been concluded that flames do not envelope an entire automobile in a matter of minutes and that conscious effort and an accelerating medium are needed to accomplish this result.

As further evidence that the modern automobile seldom burns accidentally and totally attention is directed to the fact that prior to automobile rationing, begun at the outbreak of World War II, a great number of cars were being destroyed by fire in many sections of the country. Immediately following rationing and the developing scarcity of vehicles, total fire losses declined rapidly and actually became a rarity. From reports made to this Bureau a renewed upward trend in these losses was noted immediately following V-J Day. This upward swing was evident for a few months until formal announcement was made that new vehicles would continue to be scarce. Once again reports received on total automobile fires declined rapidly.

If there is still some doubt in the mind of the investigator as to the difficulties presented in totally destroying a modern automobile by fire and without the use of an inflammable, it is suggested that a wrecked car be taken to a suitable location and individual experiments conducted in an effort to burn this car. Results obtained by disinterested witnesses when such tests have been conducted have led to the conclusion that the majority of total automobile fires are questionable and fraudulent.

AUTOMOBILE FIRE INVESTIGATION

Law enforcement officials or those persons investigating this type of loss stand between the act of arson and its successful culmination, between the criminal and the public and are the individuals in a position to prevent or reduce the number of fraudulent fire losses. It is so well understood as to hardly need repetition that the cost of insurance is based upon the experience of a given community. Thus where the experience is bad the rate is high. Therefore, those officers and investigators, who by their efforts are successful in clearing up an unfavorable fire situation are not only rendering a great public service but are also reducing the cost of insurance to the driving public. It becomes evident therefore that the solution of the automobile

Rear, side and interior view of 1955 Oldsmobile destroyed by fire. Note tires burned off rear wheels, glass melted and interior destruction.

fire problem can be attained only by better investigations—by adjusters—by law enforcement agencies—and by the successful prosecution of the persons responsible for this type of crime.

The experiments and suggested procedures presented in this series of articles are not to be considered hard and fast rules but more as methods or techniques used and proven successful by persons experienced in this field. It is to be remembered that no single rule or method can be laid down or used to secure an arson confession and conviction.

It has been said many times, too often in fact, that automobile arson cases are the most difficult of all criminal investigations to pursue to a successful conclusion. In addition a feeling exists on the part of some law enforcement officers and investigators that automobile arson cases cannot be broken and subjects prosecuted unless eye-witnesses are available—that investigations of this character are discouraging and hopeless. This defeatest attitude has led to a feeling of security in the minds of criminals burning vehicles and has been the cause of a great number of fires.

It is conceded that arson is a different type of crime to solve. At the same time the substantial number of cases which have been concluded successfully by police, fire marshals, Bureau special agents and adjusters has proven that patience, perseverance and hard work are attributes possessed by the successful investigator. The conclusion has also been reached that the ultimate solution to the automobile fire problem is the prosecution of those individuals responsible for these acts. When it becomes generally known that persons are being and will be prosecuted under applicable statutes, fear of detection will deter many individuals from wilful and malicious attempts to burn automobiles. Since these conclusions have been proven valid in many localities, it is obvious that arson investigations are neither hopeless nor should they be discouraging.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Watch for the second in this series of four interesting articles in the next issue. ★★★

What Price Honor Farms?

By Ralph L. Cleveland

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The short term diagnosis and treatment of the tens of thousands who pass through the portals of the county jails annually in this country represents one of the most critical problems in the field of corrections. Virtually all of the attention that has been directed until now to the project of rehabilitation has been centered around the inmate of the reformatory or penitentary. The short term prisoner in the county jail with its rapid turnover in population remains the forgotten man, untouched by whatever strides we have made in correctional administration.*

An encouraging development on the contemporary scene in this connection is the Ventura Honor Farm operated under the auspices of Sheriff William J. Suytar of Ventura County, California, and described in the following article by Inspector Ralph Cleveland of the Sheriff's Corrections Division. The author was for three years Superintendent of Boy's Camp in New York and served in a similar capacity for five years as Superintendent of Abbott's Hi-Neighbor Ranch in California. He has long been interested in rehabilitation projects.

SOME twenty years ago, when the present Sheriff of Ventura County, California, William J. Suytar, was a deputy, the then Sheriff, L. Howard Durley and his handful of officers envisioned a day when men who had committed misdemeanors or minor crimes could be housed separately from hardened felons. In the beginning it was only a dream and a rather farfetched dream at that.

The county had acquired 68 acres of rock and brush in a sparsely settled portion of the Ojai Valley, earmarked as the site for a tubercular ward of the county hospital. When the hospital idea was abandoned the land was transferred to the Sheriff's Department and the dream began to take on the aspects of actuality, although still in an embryo state.

For years the land lay dormant, while the little band of dedicated men proposed and planned and fought for more advanced correctional measures in the county. Gradually concrete results began to evolve from their efforts. An old ranch house on the property became farm headquarters; a farm superintendent was appointed and carefully screened prisoners were shuttled the twelve miles to and fro from jail to farm. Work was started on clearing brush and rocks, building roads and fences, laying irrigation lines and preparing the land for cultivation.

The few property owners in the area took little cognizance of the farm, as jail inmates were not yet quartered there. Then, when the Sheriff's Department requested funds from the County Board of Supervisors for an expansion program and the erection of a modern building with a capacity of 135 inmates, the storm broke. Petitions were circulated by an enraged citizenry and wild rumors originated regarding the conduct of prisoners who had been working on the farm. Many of the rumors were printed in local newspapers and indignation ran high. One Chamber of Commerce submitted a resolution to the Board of Supervisors which suggested in part that they "consider the possibility of either selling the Ojai Honor Farm or retaining the land for multi-purpose public benefit, and either abolishing the honor farm idea altogether or finding a more remote site for it."

Finally Sheriff Suytar and Undersheriff Volney B. Cummins, realizing the seriousness of the situation and fearing the sudden dissipation of a cherished dream, ordered an investigation by the Chief Jailer, Inspector Wendel H. Lowry and another ranking officer. Every rumor was traced to its source and the true facts released to the papers. For example, one local sheet printed a story about a property owner adjacent to the farm who complained that she had been frightened by inmates while working in her garden. The woman was interviewed by Inspector Lowry, who learned that inmates had been clearing debris from the road at the rear of her property when she walked around a corner of her house and suddenly came upon them. The men were as startled as she. Nothing was said on either side; the woman returned to her work and that was the end of it. She had no complaint to make.

Another typical report was that of a pregnant woman who had been so frightened by some inmates crossing her property that she had locked herself in her bathroom and remained there until her husband came home. This particular story, given credence in print, was exhaustively investigated and disproved. When the officers finally located the woman and identified themselves to her she immediately asked them who was the woman she had read about who was supposed to have been frightened while in a state of expectant motherhood. When the officers told her it was she, she first appeared startled and then burst into laughter. Actually, she told them, she not only was not pregnant and had never been disturbed by honor farm workers but she was incapable of pregnancy and she and her husband were currently in the process of procuring a baby through adoption.

And so it went. Not one single report of molestation or annoyance was found to have any basis in fact.

One local paper then printed a series of editorials exposing the rumors for what they were and pointing up the advantages accruing to the community by the presence of the farm. Unofficial investigation by the editor

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Field Representative Murray Hannon of the California State Department of Corrections, Sheriff Suytar and Inspector Lowry of the Sheriff's Department, discuss Honor Farm operations.

uncovered some angles that had nothing to do with the conduct of the farm or the inmates and which had not before been made public. Certain unscrupulous land brokers had fostered the derogatory rumors in an effort to abolish the farm so that the land might be subdivided and profitable use made of the exceptionally fine water well on the property, an asset of incalculable worth in such an arid region.

Thus the department learned the hard way, that unless good public relations are established with residents in the vicinity of a proposed honor farm, and unless taxpayers are thoroughly informed in advance, citizen resentment and fear might well defeat the purpose for which such institutions are operated, if not prevent their establishment. An unenlightened public is an antagonistic public towards anything concerning men in custody.

The public education campaign proved effective in this case; the County Board of Supervisors voted to let bids for the project and funds were allocated to that end. Construction began in July, 1956, and the first group of men, 35 in number, were transferred from the main jail on March 23, 1957. The $93,709 expended included, besides the building itself, all fixtures and furnishings and a six foot hurricane type fence topped by three strands of barbed wire surrounding the barracks compound.

The new barracks are unique in functional design, consisting of seven wings radiating from a central guard room, the entire structure resembling a seven legged starfish. One wing houses the modern equipped kitchen and dining room. The officers' washroom is constructed in one corner of another wing. A third wing is utilized at present as the recreation or dayroom, where movies are shown semi-weekly and where the inmates do their letter writing as well as enjoy the radio, cards, dominoes, checkers and other indoor games. A new ping-pong table has recently been installed. A fairly voluminous library is constantly being developed and two daily metropolitan newspapers are delivered daily. A fourth and smaller wing is the storeroom, containing besides clothing and bedding a well stocked dispensary and commissary. The remaining wings are dormitories. Two barred cells occupy a corner of one wing for the temporary incarceration of incorrigibles. As of this writing, however, their sole value has been psychological in nature. An important feature of the building is visibility. An officer seated in the guard room can see every inch of every wing without moving from his chair. Constructed of concrete blocks, with cement floors and knotty pine ceilings supported by steel frame girders, each wing boasts 12 windows and an air conditioning unit.

A modern cannery, complete with equipment for all types of canning and freezing, has been built at a cost of $10,433 and a 14 by 31 foot walk-in refrigerator and deep freeze constructed with the help of inmate labor for $8,000.

An additional 36 acres of adjoining land was transferred from another county department in June of this year, making the total acreage 104. In addition, 13 acres of lemon orchard belonging to the county and 65 acres of pasture and farm land leased from a neighboring ranch are being worked by inmates.

Production during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1957, from the farm alone was $24,333 in fresh vegetables, $3,819 in canned fruits and vegetables and $3,279 in eggs, besides 23,942 pounds of pork. Consider that this was before the present housing was completed; the inmate personnel were still commuting from the main jail and there were no refrigeration or deep freeze units. The current year, with savings in transportation time and costs, plus added facilities and the acquisition of two milk cows and 42 head of beef cattle, should double production and cash valuation.

Lieutenant Warren Paul, who heads the paid personnel, reports other projects now either in the planning stage or in process of completion. Among these are concrete farrowing pens for the hogs, macadam roads throughout the farm and a completely equipped shop where such trades as plumbing and carpentry can be taught as well as practiced. Vocational training is one of Inspector Lowry's chief interests and he holds high hopes for its efficacy in his rehabilitation program.

Plans have been drawn up for a visitors' area adjacent to the barracks compound, providing parking space, roofed enclosures for visiting and a special play area for children. A gate house is to be installed at the approach to the visiting compound, where an officer will be stationed to register visitors, inspect packages and answer questions. Officers' guns will be checked in at the gate house. An intercom system will be installed to operate between the gate house and the main office.

Benefits from the Honor Farm to the community are impressive. Inmates volunteer generously in response to emergencies or disasters. During the Malibu brush fire

inmate volunteers fought fire for a total of 783½ man hours. Outside volunteers were paid $1.50 an hour. The savings to the county in that one instance amounted to $1,175.50. Recently a hunter was reported lost in an almost inaccessible region of the Los Padres National Forest. Among the first to arrive on the scene were 20 Honor Farm volunteers under the supervision of Sergeant Taylor. Inmate volunteers fought the Simi-Chatsworth blaze and the Fillmore burn.

The farm property itself, which is bounded on the north and west by state highway 150 and on the east by a better than average residential section, has been developed and beautified, under the guidance of Farm Superintendent Sam Hester to a point where it is definitely one of the show places of the Ojai Valley. Rock walls of professional craftsmanship have been built along the state highway; the two homes on the property have been artistically landscaped with round-the-calendar flowers and shrubs. The farmed fields are lush and green with alfalfa, corn and arrow-straight rows of truck gardens, all attesting to the knowledge, industry and ingenuity of officer and inmate personnel.

Important, too, are the savings in tax dollars. The average cost per prisoner for the construction of a modern jail is $11,000 as against $600 per inmate for dormitory type minimum security barracks. The ratio in officer personnel of farm to jail in Ventura County is one to three. The farm is presently paying its own way and partially feeding the General Hospital, Bard Tuberculosis Sanitarium, Juvenile Hall, the Los Prietos Boys Camp and the main jail.

Greater than the savings in tax dollars are the benefits to the inmates. They become physically and mentally fit, in marked contrast to their condition on arrival. The work they perform conditions them physically. Their comparative freedom of action, the recreational advantages they enjoy and the new skills they may learn all tend to provide a mental stimulus that often becomes the key to their total regeneration. Segregation from hardened criminals, transference from overcrowded jail tanks to bright and airy dormitories and purposeful employment are benefits of inestimable value in developing normal social reactions and attitudes. The most striking example of such development in attitude is the change from a sullen resentment toward all custodial officers to a cheerful acceptance of and often friendly feeling for the same officers.

In summation, it should be borne in mind that however good the food, how comfortable the quarters, how equitable the work schedule, no rehabilitation program is any better than the officer personnel who conduct it. Great care should be exercised in their selection. The problems encountered are psychological rather than custodial, and the department has learned they are best handled by men of mature judgment together with sociological training and human relations experience. The officer must see an inmate's problems from his point of view "without letting sympathy affect his judgment."

General view of Ventura County Honor Farm; field of hay in foreground; truck gardens are in background between two rows of trees.

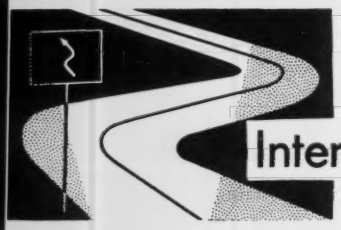
Since rehabilitation work involves a closer intimacy between officer and inmate than is ordinarily allowable between custodian and custodee, the problem of maintaining a friendly and helpful attitude without sacrificing discipline requires more aptitude than might appear on the surface. There are always men who try to capitalize on this closer relationship by subtly seeking more and more leeway in the exercise of their prescribed chores or freedom of movement. An officer must be quick to recognize this tendency and check it.

Another constant problem is that of maintaining peaceful relationships between a heterogeneous aggregation of men with conflicting natures and uncontrolled passions, whose repressed desires are aggravated by confinement and whose innate racial, social and psychic antagonisms are further stimulated by proximity. These and other related problems call for a very special type of temperament, training and experience.

Any custodial department contemplating the establishment of an Honor Farm should take all of these factors into consideration and profit by the experience of those who have pioneered in that field. The Ventura County Sheriff's Department takes pride in being numbered among the pioneers and stands ready to assist any police organization seeking its aid. ★★★

A Fire Fatality?

The victim was burned beyond recognition. His death, however, was not caused by fire. Death was the result of multiple fractures of the skull, received from the hands of an assailant. Fire may often hide the cause of death. An autopsy performed by the medical examiner will give the true cause of death. From Young, C. B., Jr.: *First Aid and Resuscitation.*



Interstate Highway Signs Get Research Attention

By William G. Eliot, 3rd

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Anyone who has driven cross country in the United States, and most people have, will welcome what Mr. Eliot has to say concerning the movement toward standardization of signs on interstate highways. The author is Highway Engineer in the Traffic Operations Division, Office of Research, Bureau of Public Roads, Washington 25, D. C., assigned to traffic control and safety. Mr. Eliot has been with the Bureau for more than 30 years, and for much of that time has served as Secretary to the National Joint Committee on Uniform Traffic Control Devices. He has been active in the development and promotion of uniformity in highway signs and traffic regulations through Bureau research and the activities of numerous national committees.*

THE new National System of Interstate and Defense Highways will, over the next few years, lace our nation with a network of expressways such as we have hitherto seen only in detached fragments, mostly as toll roads. The new highways will be of controlled-access type, generally with separated one-way roadways, without Stop signs, traffic signals, or bottlenecks. In theory, at least, an atomic-powered vehicle could travel nonstop from coast to coast and then, without pausing anywhere, move on to cover all the rest of the interstate system of about 41,000 miles.

A highway system built to this high standard needs relatively few regulatory signs, and still fewer warning signs. On the other hand, the elaborately designed interchanges that are necessary for nonstop driving, and the speeds at which the interchanges are approached and traversed, make a generous use of clear directional and informational signs altogether essential. Directional signs on the new interstate system are going to be as unmistakable as experience and research can make them.

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We have not been without precedent for the new standards. For many years we have been meeting the challenge of expanding traffic with ever more effective signs. We have built a substantial mileage of high-type expressways, particularly of toll roads. Based on this experience the general pattern of directional signing for the interstate system was not hard to visualize. There were, however, some elements of design on which highway officials were not agreed, particularly color, reflectorization, and letter sizes. To help resolve these questions the U. S. Bureau of Public Roads was asked to conduct a limited series of sign legibility tests, using directional signs of the type intended for use on the interstate system.

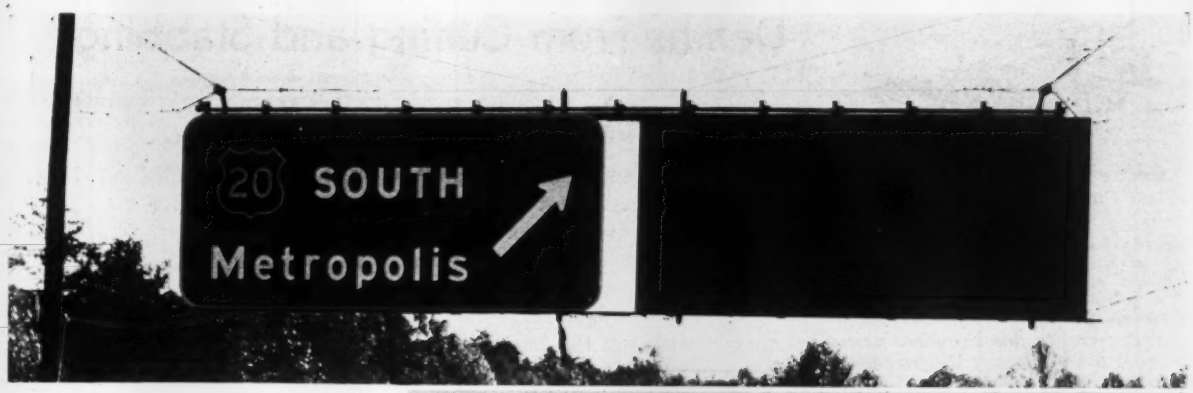
All the test signs had white reflectorized legend and borders. There were three background colors, black, blue, and green, the blue and green being in both reflectorized and nonreflectorized finishes. To include all combinations of these variables required five large roadside signs, differing only in colors and reflectorization, and (omitting black) four overhead signs, also of identical layout, as illustrated in the accompanying photographs.

The principal message on these signs was the destination name or names. For the roadside signs the names were in lower-case letters of a "loop height" of 18 inches, with initial capitals 24 inches high. For the overhead signs 12-inch lower-case letters were used with 16-inch capitals. To accommodate this large lettering the roadside signs measured 20 by 16 feet in size, and the overhead signs 18 by 8 feet.

The signs were erected in the vicinity of Washington, D. C., along a stretch of newly constructed highway not yet opened to the public, and were viewed by over 200 volunteer observers riding past in motor vehicles at about 30 miles per hour. By means of small markers on the road shoulder a "recorder" assigned to each observer noted the distances at which each sign was first seen, recognized as to color, and read. The observer was also asked at the conclusion of the test to indicate his personal preferences as to colors and reflectorization for the proposed interstate highway signs.

Sight distances on the test course were generally below the maximum visibility distances of the signs, hence, for daytime, the recorded visibility and color-recognition distances had little meaning. By night, however, there were significant differences. Background reflectorization was a most effective aid to color recognition by night, the nonreflectorized colors appearing black except at a very close approach to the signs. The blue reflectorized signs, however, were called green by nearly 20 per cent of the nighttime observers, whereas less than 4 per cent erred in the opposite direction. A majority of the observers expressed a preference for green as their first choice of color. Blue was next in favor by day but took the fewest first choices by night.

The relative legibility of the several signs varied with different conditions of weather and light, though percentagewise the differences were not great. For the large roadside signs the black background appeared to provide the best all-around legibility, but the blue and green



(Above) Overhead type of sign gets research tests; note sliding screen to permit alternate viewing.

(Right) A photo showing the design of the roadside directional signs used in the interstate highway sign tests.

were not far behind. On the overhead signs reflectorized green was best, though without reflectorization blue gave the better performance. The effect of background reflectorization on legibility was inconclusive. Approximately 80 per cent of the observers, however, expressed a preference for reflectorization.

For the most legible roadside sign the destination names in 18-inch lower-case letters showed reading distances of about 85 feet per inch of loop height by day and 75 feet by night. For the overhead signs with 12-inch lower-case letters the corresponding values were about 100 feet and 80 feet. This suggests that there may be a point of diminishing returns in increasing letter heights. In any case the smaller alphabet appears to make a relatively more effective use of the sign area.

A report of these tests, submitted to the American Association of State Highway Officials, was influential in the decision to use green backgrounds for the approved directional signs on the interstate system. The excellent legibility of the signs without reflectorized backgrounds helped to justify the permissive use of either reflectorized or nonreflectorized backgrounds for roadside signs, though for overhead signs the approved interstate standards require reflectorization or illumination. The outstanding performance of the very large lettering on the test signs appeared to support the proposed specification of 18-inch lower-case letters (with 24-inch initial capitals) on certain advance directional signs at major interchanges, but it also warranted the use of smaller signs at interchanges of lesser importance. The interstate sign standards as now approved provide for 12-inch lower-case letters (with 16-inch capitals) for the destination names at all but the most important interchanges.

It is intended that all signing on the interstate highway system shall follow the uniform standards that have been approved by the American Association of State Highway Officials and the Federal Highway Administrator and have been published by the Association. Only through the findings of a full-scale experiment like that here described would it have been possible to resolve, on a working basis, some of the problems on which there were—and doubtless still are—firmly held differences of opinion. ★★★

Deaths From Cutting and Stabbing

By Harold L. Beddoe, M.D.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Beddoe is Assistant Chief Medical Examiner for the State of Virginia. He holds the B.S. degree from the University of Tulsa, the M.D. degree from Tulane University Medical School and served his internship with the Southern Pacific General Hospital in San Francisco as well as work in residence at Hillcrest Memorial Hospital in Tulsa, Oklahoma. After service with the U. S. Medical Corps from January 1945 through December 1946, he engaged in the private practice of medicine until 1948. At that time, he became Police physician with the Tulsa Police Department, working primarily with the Homicide Division. He aided in establishing the first use of chemical tests for alcohol in Oklahoma and in running the analyses on the specimens. Dr. Beddoe gave evidence at the trial which established the precedent in that state for the use of such chemical tests (Toms v. State 239 P. (2d) 812). He has attended the University of Tulsa Law School and from 1951 to 1954 was a Fellow in Legal Medicine and Pathology, Medical College of Virginia.*

In 1954 he became Assistant Chief Medical Examiner for the State of Virginia, where he assists in reviewing the 7,000 or more medical examiner cases occurring annually in Virginia; investigates local medical examiner cases and performs autopsies on such cases as needed. In addition to his other responsibilities, Dr. Beddoe serves as Assistant Professor of Legal Medicine, Medical College of Virginia in Richmond. His instructional duties include supervision of training of the Fellow in Legal Medicine, assisting in teaching the senior medical class course in Legal Medicine in addition to serving as a lecturer in the State Police Training School and in the training schools of other state and local law enforcement organizations. He is a regular participant as a lecturer at the Southwestern Homicide Investigators Seminar held annually in Oklahoma and Texas since 1954 and has published a number of papers on various phases of forensic pathology and the medical examiner system. The JOURNAL *welcomes this distinguished contributor to its columns.*

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THE cause and manner of death and the type of instrument used are the primary considerations of the investigator in these deaths from cuts and stabs. Additional questions which may arise later on in the case are (1) what was the length of time between infliction of the wounds and death, (2) were the injuries inflicted before or after death, and (3) could the wounds have been caused by a particular weapon submitted as the fatal weapon?

In order to provide all possible medical evidence in anticipation of these questions it is essential that the examination be conducted slowly, in a methodical fashion and with the proper equipment. The medical findings should be correlated with all other information before any opinions are formed.

There are certain features about these cases, which will be pointed out later, that may lead to erroneous conclusions unless the investigator makes every effort to maintain an open mind about the case until the investigation is completed. Premature opinions about the manner of death (suicide or homicide), preconceived ideas of how certain wounds should appear, and the emotional response of the investigator to the wounds and the amount of blood present, together with the failure to "make haste slowly" are sources of error in the investigation of these deaths that can and should be avoided.

The experienced investigator will avoid hunches and intuition in forming his opinion; instead he will wait until all the facts are known. A premature opinion may cause even the best man to overlook important evidence because it does not fit into the theory he has already formed. The point I am trying to emphasize was much better expressed by Davy Crockett when he said, "Better get a lot of fur on your tail before they start shooting at you."

INVESTIGATION AT THE SCENE

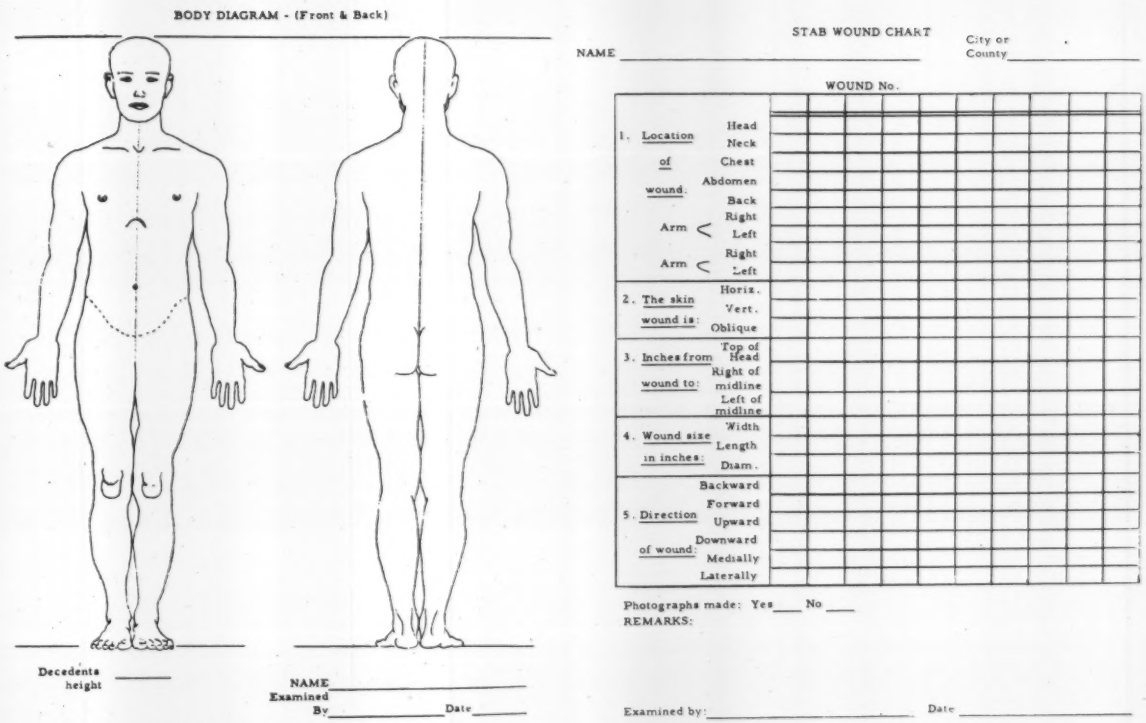
At the scene of the death one should note the position of the body and its relation to the surroundings, the conditions of the scene as related to any evidence of a struggle, location of the weapon if present, condition of the victim's clothing, the amount and distribution of blood around the scene, the direction of flow of blood from the wounds, and if there is any sign that the body might have been moved after death.

Other points to help determine if this is suicide or homicide would be whether there is any indication that some other felony was being committed which was interrupted by the victim, and what reason there was for the victim to be at that particular location. Was it his residence, place of business or a place where he had no known reason to be.

EXAMINATION OF THE BODY

The body should be removed to the morgue or other suitable place for the detailed examination of the wounds. Adequate lighting, a hand lens, a small ruler and a yardstick and facilities to record the results of the examination are the minimum essential aids required. We record these wounds in three different fashions: a detailed word description, a wound chart, and on a body outline diagram. In addition to the accurate measurements of the wounds themselves we use two other measurements to locate the wound on the body—distance from the top of the head, and the distance to the right or left of the mid-line of the body.

After photographs of the wounds, and the clothing if necessary, the clothing should be examined for trace evidence and any cuts, holes or tears that might have been produced by the weapon. The location and amount of blood as well as the direction of its flow should be noted. This will help reconstruct the position of the victim at various times



FIGURES 1a AND 1b. *Body outline diagram and stab wound chart used in recording location and other information pertaining to stab wounds.*

after the wounds were received.

To avoid missing any of the wounds the body should be examined in a systematic fashion. We prefer to start at the head, work down each side of the body and then repeat the inspection on the back. Some of the points to be observed in examining each wound are: (1) number and type; (2) situation or location; (3) size, shape, depth and direction; (4) condition of the edges of the wound, and the adjacent skin, (5) presence of foreign material in or around the wound.

Never try to fit a suspected weapon into any of the wounds. Not only will this distort the wound but such a comparison is usually of no value because a given wound of the skin is usually slightly smaller in length than the size of the blade. The reason for this is that the skin is elastic and gives a little before the blade actually penetrates it. As a result the skin wound is slightly less than the size of the instrument. This same point is true of bullet wounds and should be kept in mind in the investigation of such deaths.

WOUNDS FROM CUTTING

In a typical cut the wound is produced by passing a sharp object *across* the skin, and therefore the length will be greater than the depth. The edges are clean-cut in proportion to the sharpness of the instrument and the deep tissues will be divided cleanly and evenly. These cuts bleed freely and their edges may be widely separated or close together depending on the direction of the cut with reference to the lines of skin tension. The skin adjacent to a cut seldom shows any sign of bruising.

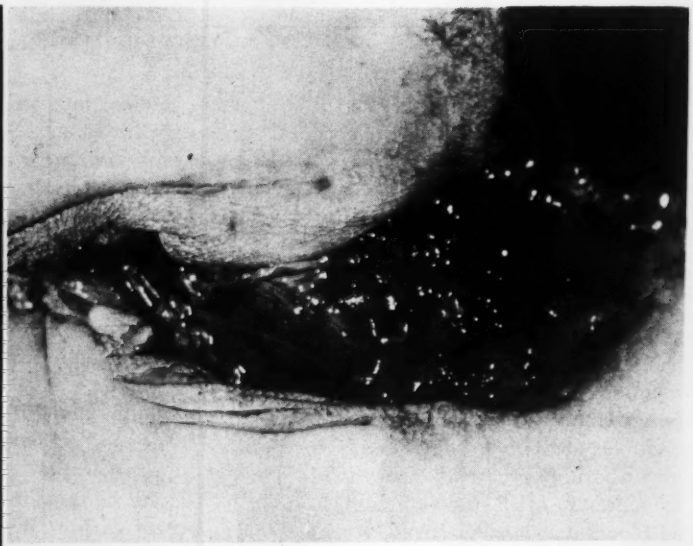
The direction in which the cut was made can usually be determined by close inspection with a hand lens. The edges of the cut will show tiny triangular tags of skin which will point in the direction of the cut. These are more prominent if the instrument was dull and thus the tags may also be of some help in describing the instrument used.

Another feature of cutting wounds is that the beginning of the cut is usually deeper than at its end.

Wounds made with pieces of glass, metal or other objects with sharp edges may show the same general features of wounds made with cutting instruments. However, they often are more ragged or irregular because the skin is pulled into small folds in front of the advancing cutting edge. The very margin of such wounds may also show bruising from the pressure of the object but this may be very difficult to determine. Portions of the weapon or other foreign material may be found in the wound. Glass objects are especially likely to leave small fragments in the depths of the cut. Because they are difficult to see and may be covered with blood it may be advisable, after describing the wound, to flush it out with water or gently scrape the sides and depth of the wound.

ACCIDENT, SUICIDE OR HOMICIDE

Fatal accidents are rare from cuts and usually present no great problem. The victim will usually seek medical aid or, if found dead, the



FIGURES 2a AND 2b. *Homicidal cut-throat wounds inflicted with razor blade by infant's mother. The superficial cuts resemble the "hesitation marks" often found in suicidal cuts of the throat.*

scene of the accident will reveal the sequence of events.

The major problems arise in distinguishing between suicidal and homicidal cuts. Sometimes the deciding factor in making this distinction may be only the location of the wound on the body. The cuts made by suicides are made on parts of the body which they can reach and will be especially directed toward vital areas likely to produce a quick death. Specifically, the throat and vessels of the wrists or perhaps the vessels in the bend of the arm are selected by the suicide. Unusual locations and multiple sites on the body are sometimes found in mentally deranged persons. Unless these injuries are in places physically impossible for the victim to have inflicted, the investigator should not rule out suicide.

Suicidal cut-throat wounds usually begin high on the left side of the neck in right-handed persons, pass slightly downward across the front of the neck *above* the larynx (Adam's apple) and trail off as a shallow cut on the right side of the neck. The wound is often slightly under-cut on its lower edge because the instrument is held at a slight downward angle. Because the head is held with the chin up to expose the area, the skin will be under tension and there will be little chance that the skin edges will show any raggedness. "Hesitation marks" should always be looked for in cut-throat wounds especially. These consist of one or more superficial cuts near the beginning of the fatal cut and usually parallel to it; the suicide has been testing the keenness of the blade or working up courage to make the final slash.

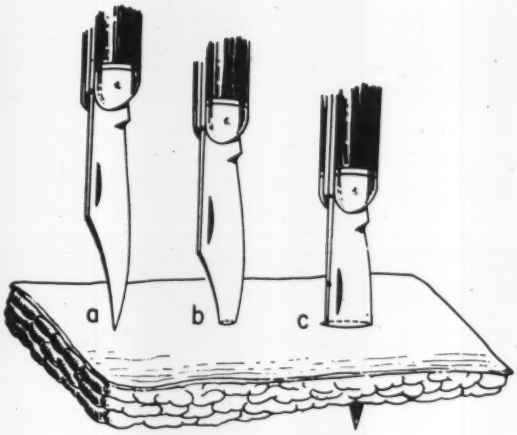
Homicidal cut-throat wounds are usually lower on the neck, cutting through or below the larynx, are more horizontal than curved, and often have ragged edges because the skin is not under tension as it is in suicidal cuts. The under-cutting will more likely be on the upper edge of the wound than the lower because of the way the instrument is held.

Homicidal cuts are often multiple and on different parts of the body in a more random fashion than in the suicide. They are not so carefully placed many times as are the suicidal cuts, have a more "vicious" character in their appearance and will more often go through the skin at shallow angles to produce "flaps" of skin or deeply under-cut sides. The suicide will sometimes stand before a mirror to guide his hand or he will assume some comfortable position in a chair, on a bed or in the bathtub. The weapon in most cases of suicide will be found near the body or in the hand, but you should be aware of the fact that occasionally the person will hide or replace a weapon after making the cut and then walk to some other part of the house before lying down to die. Only when the weapon is definitely not on the premises should the investigator allow this fact to suggest homicide.

STAB WOUNDS

A stab wound is a penetrating injury produced by thrusting a sharp-pointed instrument *through* the skin. Thus the depth will be greater than the width and there may be bruising of the adjacent skin from some part of the weapon although this is not always found.

The skin edges will not show the triangular tags found in cutting



STAB WOUND PRODUCED BY SINGLE-EDGED INSTRUMENT

The skin is first pierced by the point, then the cutting edge enters and extends the wound in the skin. Unless the back of the blade is very thick, the two ends of the wound are difficult to distinguish. Such wounds are often mistaken for those made by a double-edged instrument.

FIGURE 3. *(Above left) Diagram to illustrate why wounds produced by single-edged and double-edged instruments may be quite similar in appearance.*

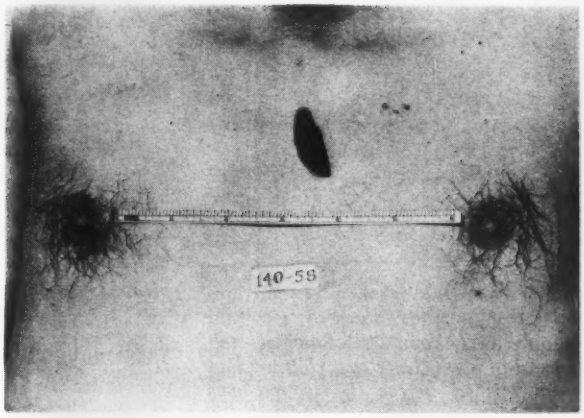


FIGURE 4. *(Above) Shape of stab wound distorted by skin tension. Both ends of wound are actually V-shaped but the skin tension here causes U-shaped appearance of upper end of wound.*

wounds and the ends of the stab wound are often indistinguishable unless the weapon had a very thick back. The use of a hand lens may be of help in determining if the weapon had one or two sharp edges. The cutting edge will leave a sharp clean-cut end while the back of the weapon will be somewhat squared off. Extreme caution should be used in giving an opinion on this point.

The shape of the weapon is usually difficult to determine exactly because the skin tension lines may distort the shape of the wound, or the weapon may be withdrawn at a different angle from its entrance, or the victim might be moving and cause some cutting action as well as stabbing. A triangular object such as a machinist's file will leave a three-cornered wound but a square sharp-pointed object will leave a cross-shaped wound that may be mistaken for two small knife wounds made at right angles to each other.

The depth of the wound is no indication of the length of the weapon. It may not have penetrated completely or it may have been thrust against some yielding part of the body such as the abdomen and produce a wound considerably deeper than the length of the weapon.

ACCIDENT, SUICIDE OR HOMICIDE

Accidental stab wounds are rare and the investigation of the death will show the circumstances.

In suicides the stab wounds will be found usually on the front of the body in or near vital areas, particularly the heart, major blood vessels and the abdomen. A point of great value to remember in suicides from stabs, cuts and guns, is that the suicide will almost invariably open the clothing or remove them to allow direct access to the sites of injury. In both stabbing and cutting the suicide will usually assume some comfortable position or may stand in front of a mirror; the position of the body when found will thus often indicate the manner of death. The weapon is generally present near the body or even in the wound itself but the same caution applies here to stabbing suicides as mentioned in cutting suicides.

Multiple stab wounds may be found in suicides as well as cases where the blade is thrust through the skin and then repeated stabs at different angles will be made through the same skin wound. There is a limit, however, to the number of stab wounds the usual suicide will make and so if the body shows perhaps ten or fifteen deep stab wounds the suspicion of homicide should be seriously entertained. Mention should also be made of those cases of murder by stabbing during a homosexual or sexual frenzy. The victim may be stabbed on all sur-

FIGURE 5. *(Above) Misleading appearance of position of cutting edge in wound from single-edged blade. Cutting edge of blade was actually toward U-shaped lower end of wound but skin tension caused wider separation at lower end which might be mistaken for the separation caused by the thick, back edge of a blade.*

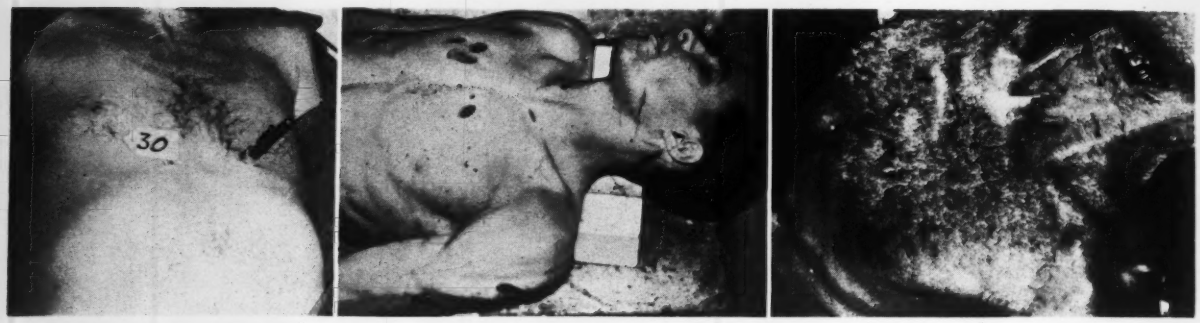


FIGURE 6. *(Above left) Suicidal stab wound of heart. Note that clothing had been opened before the wound was made.*

FIGURES 7 AND 8. *(Above center and right) Homicidal stab wounds. In each case note the scattered nature of the multiple wounds but with a concentration on vital areas of the body.*

faces of the body or the sexual organs may be the primary target or even completely severed. In a recent case we had, the husband surprised his wife and a friend, both nude, in a very compromising position. The friend was stabbed four times in the buttocks before he could get to his feet and when he turned around the fatal stab was made into his chest over the heart.

In homicidal stabbings the problem is simplified when the wound is in an area inaccessible to the victim. The direction and course of the wound in the body may help distinguish suicide from homicide. The natural tendency in suicides is for the weapon to pass through the skin into the body at a downward angle of varying degree; horizontal thrusts are also made but the downward direction going somewhat to the left (in right-handed persons) is more common in suicides. Depending upon the assailant and his experience with knives the wound may go downward or upward but it will usually pass to the right if the two people are facing each other. The true knife-fighter, as you know, holds the knife like a sword rather than a dagger, so the wounds produced have a definite upward direction.

Defensive wounds of the body, in both cutting and stabbing, are evidence of homicide when present. These injuries are produced when the victim tries to ward off the blows or attempts to grasp the weapon. In homicides, the clothing will be penetrated by the weapon and this will help in solving the manner of death.

The use of x-rays of the body should not be overlooked in stabbing cases. Parts of or the tip of a blade may be broken off in bone or cartilage and remain undetected unless the autopsy or x-ray reveals their presence. The value of such evidence to the police needs no comment.

ESTIMATING SURVIVAL TIME FOLLOWING INJURIES

Unfortunately this question cannot often be answered with the preciseness that would be desired by the police or prosecuting attorneys. The ability of different people to survive fatal wounds of the same kind is well known and unless the wounds have involved the upper part of the spinal cord where instantaneous death inevitably results, there is hardly an injury from cutting or stabbing that will allow us to say death followed within some specified period of time.

We certainly will do all that we possibly can in any case, taking all the facts into consideration, to give some estimate of the survival time following injury. But each case presented for opinion must be considered in view of the facts of the case and not with regard to what has happened in other cases in the experience of the investigator. The same remarks hold true for the other question that usually arises: Could this person have performed certain acts or talked after receiving these injuries? No opinion can be given unless all of the results of the examination and investigation are made available.

OPINIONS FROM THE MEDICAL EXAMINATION

From the examination of the body the medical examiner should be able to give the cause of death. Some indication of the general features of the fatal instrument may also be given from this examination. The determination of the manner of death (accident, suicide or homicide) will often depend on information obtained by the police at the scene of death. The close cooperation between the medical examiner and police will insure that the maximum medico-legal information has been obtained during these investigations.

★★★

NEW DRIVER RATING SCALE

For the past several years the Driving Research Laboratory at Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, has been working on the problem of a suitable criterion of driving. A one-page rating instrument to be marked just after a test drive is now available. It is simple and can be checked by anyone and has norms based on 349 cases in a recent controlled study.

The form consists of 12 behavior categories of five items each and 15 elements of skill. It is simple to use, has a reliability of + .92 and a validity above .60 as based on objective measures of driving performance. The form may be used for rating learners with some experience, lay drivers or as a selection instrument for commercial drivers. The form is copyrighted by Iowa State College.

"Building Safety Into the Automobile"

By Donald J. Schrum

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Donald J. Schrum, Body Development Engineer of Studebaker-Packard Corporation, graduated from Tri State College in 1933 with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Chemical Engineering. He entered the automobile industry as a design engineer on automobile bodies at Studebaker in 1936 and has been continuously associated with structural design and development of bodies there except for a year during 1940 and 1941 when he was employed by the Army Ordnance Department on Military tank development. During World War II he also served as an instructor at the University of Notre Dame, in addition to his war work activity at Studebaker. In 1950 he was transferred to the Engineering Research Department at Studebaker in charge of experimental development and testing of bodies and related parts. In this capacity he has been active in all phases of inter-industry safety work.*

He is a member of the Vehicle Safety Committee of the Automobile Manufacturers Association, Society of Automotive Engineers Seat Belt Committee, Automotive Glazing Committee and Body Activity Committee; Vice Chairman of the S.A.E. Body Engineering Committee and Chairman of the S.A.E. Seating Committee. In the following article written exclusively for POLICE, Mr. Schrum deals with the research efforts of the automobile industry directed toward the engineering of safety features into automobile design, together with some unusual glances at the nature of things to come.

EACH year the National Safety Council issues a prediction of accident fatalities for the following year. Each holiday weekend their prediction is translated into the number of minutes to elapse between each highway fatality in the country, and enforcement officers throughout the country within whose areas these accidents have occurred know all too well how accurately our mobile people substantiate these statistical forecasts. At the Proving Grounds of the automobile manufacturers, as well as several colleges and military establishments, such "accidents" also occur with equally meticulous timing. But that is because they are not accidents—they are carefully planned crashes, with anthropomorphic dummies for passengers, duplicating as closely as possible the events promulgated by the injudicious driver, to study methods of reducing the fatality and injury toll.

The total fatality score for 1957 reached 38,500 but if the pattern established in 1947, based on vehicle miles traveled, had prevailed that total would have been 57,500, or in 1942 69,000 fatalities, or in 1934, the worst year in history, 109,000 dead.

There is no way of proportioning the credit for this effective life-saving program among the many efforts being carried on in the field. We know that improvements in highway engineering, traffic regulation and enforcement, driver training and tightening of licensing regulations have all made significant contributions but the improvements in the vehicles through the years must be recognized as one of the greatest single factors brought to bear on the problem.

Since the early days of the automobile its designers recognized the potentials of the machine they were creating as well as their responsibility to society to guard the safety of all who were to be involved with the product of their work. Those earlier efforts were in two directions, both aimed at reducing the frequency of accidents. Improvements in steering, brakes, stability, ease of operation, and driver and passenger comfort had the continuing effect of enabling the driver to retain control of his vehicle in keeping with the increasing travel distance and traffic volume. At the same time manufacturing methods, materials and quality control progressed to the point that for many years accidents due to mechanical failure have been almost eliminated.

While continuing the aim of reducing accident possibility, the past few years have seen a new goal added to the safety design efforts of industry. Recognizing the inevitability of accidents, designers have increased their attention to "packaging" the passengers to reduce the likelihood of injury when an accident does occur. The adoption of the all-steel body many years ago provided the substantial package for the passengers but they, like fine china, can be damaged if allowed to rattle around loose against the hard walls of the most indestructible container. It followed then that if the passenger could remain secure in his place in the car and be protected from injury producing hard surfaces and projections his chances of survival would be improved.

A statistical aid in this area is the Cornell University Automotive Crash Injury Research program which is an outgrowth of a similar program which proved so effective in the field of light aircraft accidents. An earlier program of the Indiana State Police directed by Sergeant Elmer C. Paul provided the first data but the project now receives detailed accident and corresponding medical reports through the cooperation of law enforcement and medical agencies in 16 states and 3 cities. These details are tabulated and analyzed to point out the areas of design which should receive specific attention. On a continuing basis these data also serve to evaluate the im-

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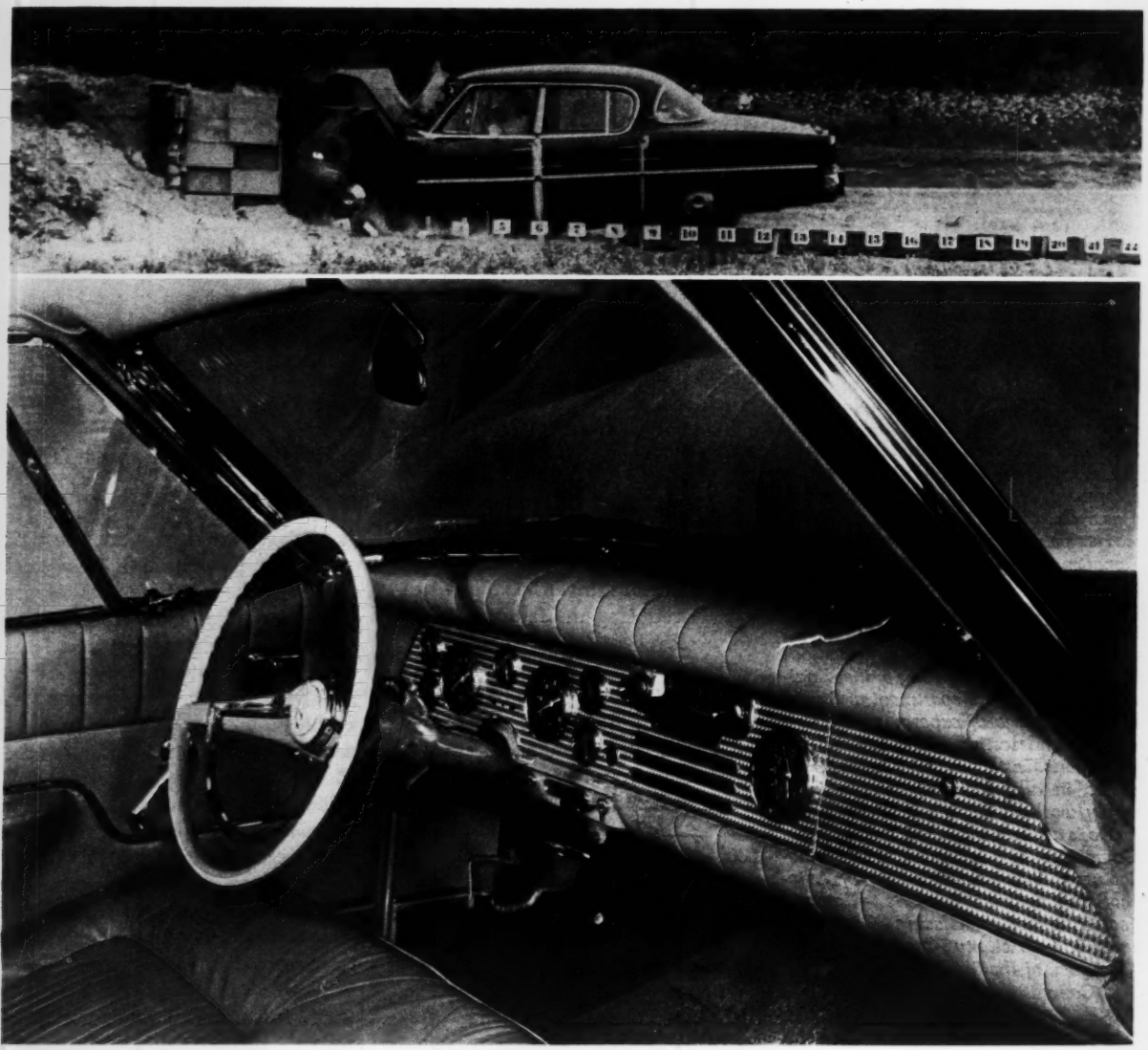


(Above) Thirty-five mile-per-hour barrier crash of 1954 Studebaker to test efficiency of safety door locks.

(Below) Efficient crash protection is shown in this current model Packard Hawk with padding for head and knee protection on the instrument board, padded door panels, padded sun-visors, deep-dish steering wheel and swivel-base rear view mirror.

provements as they are made in the new models.

An example of this technique is found in the ejection studies made by Cornell. These studies showed that five times as many fatalities occurred among the passengers ejected when doors opened, compared to passengers remaining inside the car. With this information to spur their efforts, special attention was devoted to what happened in the test crashes to cause the doors to open and to the development of a latch design to minimize such opening. The interlocking types of door latches, which became standard on all automobiles in 1956, were the result of intensive testing in the laboratories and on the industry proving grounds by means of many barrier, broadside, and roll-over crashes.

Later studies of the Crash Injury Research data compared the accidental door opening characteristics of 1956 cars with pre-1956 models. In roll-over accidents the incidence of one or more doors opening was reduced 20 per cent and in non-roll-over cases door opening was reduced 33 per cent. In addition, these studies revealed a reduction of 30 per cent in the dangerous injuries and fatalities in the 1956 models which reflects not only the door latch improvements but the cumulative effects of the safety innovations of that year. These included such details as dished steering wheels, padded instrument panels, padded sun visors, double-swivel mirror mountings, and seat belts, some of which are standard equipment and some as optional accessories available on all current cars.

The question of why some of the safety items available remain in the extra cost option class has been

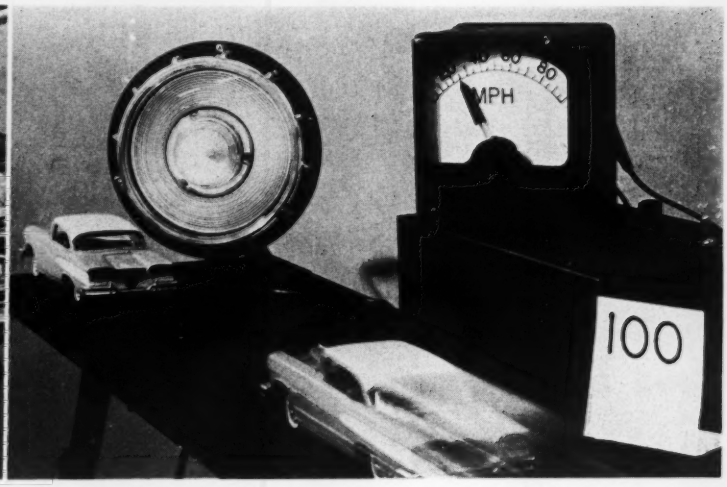
(Above left) Adequate seat belts as shown in this American Motors Rambler reduce chances of injury by at least 2½ to 1 but the public is reluctant to accept their benefits.

(Above) General Motors Research Staff's New Unicontrol System makes driving a car by hand a reality. The 4-inch stick topped by a weighted ball controls the car's steering, acceleration and braking and does away completely with the conventional steering wheel.

raised many times and can be illustrated with the case of the widely misunderstood seat belt. Statistically proven by Cornell studies to be the most effective single factor in injury prevention, seat belts were given widespread publicity and sales effort in 1956 with the result that many people included seat belts in their new car orders that year. But while the encouragement still remained the buying public told the engineers in 1957 that they were not interested in safety if it meant seat belts—by not buying seat belts. If they had been standard equipment on any model that year that model might have been by-passed by the car shopper who did not accept their value and would not pay their cost. Many of the standard equipment items of today are included because the public expressed a growing acceptance by their increased demand for them as optional accessories. As for seat belts—their value has been incontestably proven and the automobile industry will continue its educational efforts to promote the public acceptance and use which may at some time lead to their adoption as regular equipment as they are on aircraft where, perhaps, even less need exists.

The ability of the driver to appraise the rapidly changing conditions along the road and control his vehicle within the limitations presented is one of the keys to accident reduction. Seeing ability has been improved by increasing glass area and reducing obstructions at the driver's eye level. Improvements in headlighting, first by the improvements in sealed-beam lamps and now by the dual headlight system which is appearing on many new models, extends the night seeing distance to reveal previously hidden dangers. These improvements in lighting were achieved by the combined efforts of the automobile manufacturers and lamp manufacturers through the Automobile Manufacturers Association and the Society of Automotive Engineers and serve as an example of the results of cooperation within the entire industry where safety is concerned. This cooperation extends to many other related groups outside of the industry. The American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators is prominent in this activity. Safety standards for many components and materials such as lighting equipment, signalling equipment, safety glass, and brake fluid have been developed with their assistance.

One might think that the statistics quoted in the opening paragraphs would produce an attitude of complacency among the industry workers but, quite the contrary, the record has shown that effective improvements are possible and in-



(Above left) LOOK—NO HANDS!! As automatically steered car goes into turnaround loop on "automatic" check road at General Motors Technical Center, Joanne Powers of GM Research Staff takes her hands off the wheel. The vehicle is steered by a magnetic path produced by a cable in the pavement, similar to a short range radar "beam," and an electronic computer in the glove compartment, which controls the modified power steering system. Driver still controls accelerator and brake, however, while the automatic steering gear is in operation.

(Above right) A device that flashes a warning to a motorist when another car is approaching too rapidly from behind was demonstrated at Ford Motor Company's Dearborn, Mich., Research and Engineering Center Thursday (April 10) for members of the Governors Conference Special Committee on Highway Safety. Mounted in two miniature Edsels, the device uses a photo-electric cell principle and a computer to flash the brake lights of one car automatically if a vehicle is approaching from the rear at a speed that might cause a collision. Ford engineers said the device is strictly experimental, but offers "possibilities" in research seeking to make driving safer.

dustry efforts are being extended to cover all phases of the driver-vehicle-highway complex. The recent visit to Detroit of the Special Committee on Highway Safety of the State Governors Conference revealed the broad thinking behind the future development programs of the industry. Part of this work may be properly defined as human engineering involving the study of how to construct the automobile to facilitate correct driver response in emergency situations as well as to minimize human error which might lead to an accident. This has included studies by Chrysler engineers with the cooperation of Harper Hospital medical personnel of human response and attentiveness relating, among other things, to the element of fatigue in driving the automobile. This work involves simulation of driving conditions and the measurement of physiological response by means of electro-encephalograph measurement of brain waves, pulse action and perspiration rate. One series of these tests showed a marked decrease of alertness after one and one-half hours of steady "driving" following by frequent dips in alertness as the test was prolonged. With the knowledge that alertness is a function of the nervous system, it is hoped that such studies may eventually lead to an acceptable way to stimulate driver attentiveness on extended trips.

Efforts by the entire industry toward reduction of noise and vibration, improved seating and the offerings of power assists such as power steering, brakes, window operators and seats all contribute to reducing the element of fatigue. One manufacturer even offers a driver's seat "with a memory" which enables the driver to dial a position on the automatic control which he has found to be most comfortable.

Criticism of the steering column as a crash hazard and recognition that time lost in driver response in the use of pedal controls has prompted serious investigation into new types of control. One of the most interesting although admittedly looking far into the future, is the experimental General Motors car featuring the Unicontrol system. This centralizes steering, braking, and accelerating control in a single 4-inch stick topped by a weighted knob, eliminating the conventional steering wheel, brake and accelerator pedals. To accelerate, the driver merely pushes the control stick forward. To brake, he pulls it backward and right or left movement steers the front wheels. With a maximum of only two inches movement in any direction of the spring-centered control stick the driver exerts only one pound of pressure to vary the electronic controls which govern the hydraulic power system for steering, throttle or brakes. The inertia of the weighed ball on the control stick provides stability to keep the car on a straight path and transmits a "road feel" for the driver in the case of skids.

Another vehicle demonstrated by General Motors uses the basic elements of the Unicontrol as an automatic guidance device along the

magnetic path of a specially built strip of "automatic" highway. Low frequency alternating current in a cable imbedded in the highway creates a magnetic field which is straddled by a pair of tuned pick-up coils on the front bumper. Voltage differences in the two pick-ups caused by deviation of the car from the magnetic path of the cable electronically activate the servo mechanisms to correct the steering.

Much work has been done on radar-controlled brakes. Actual traffic driving tests which record the braking of a driver and the braking commands of the radar unit indicate the appraisal of a condition which requires braking must remain to a certain degree under human control, but recent demonstrations of radar type proximity warning devices indicate that such devices might be feasible but their value has yet to be substantiated.

In fact, while automatic control of the mechanical elements of the vehicle such as automatic transmission, spark control, and choke are an accepted reality, automatic guidance and vehicle control must be approached with caution. While the records show that 96 per cent of the accidents are the result of driver error, they also show that only one accident fatality in the United States occurs for nearly 17 million vehicle miles. Thus, we cannot underestimate the reliability of the human driver as a control system with which any automatic device must be compared despite the numerically high incidence of driver-error accidents.

One approach to a semi-automatic and warning system type of control was announced recently by Chrysler Corporation and known as their "Auto-Pilot." With this device the driver sets his desired legal speed on an instrument panel knob, and a warning back pressure automatically appears on the accelerator pedal when that speed is reached. If greater performance is needed in an emergency the driver can always over-ride the back pressure by more force on the pedal. For turnpike driving the device may be set for automatic control and when the desired speed is reached the Auto-Pilot takes over the accelerator pedal, making adjustments for hills and other topographical irregularities to maintain that constant speed. A touch on the brake pedal releases the control to the driver. In addition to minimizing driver fatigue the device permits the driver to know he is driving within recognized speed limits without taking his eyes from the road.

Chrysler's Auto-Pilot controlled by single knob. Auto-Pilot, the new power assist which allows the driver to dial his speed and remove his foot from the accelerator when cruising, is controlled by a single knob.

While all automobile manufacturers continue to investigate methods of improving occupant protection, Ford Motor Company has exhibited a prototype which they call a safety engineer's "dream car." The car, equipped with devices designed to increase the chance of survival in the event of an accident, included the following:

—An energy absorbing front bumper to minimize the rate of deceleration in case of crash.

—A steering column hub, 11 inches in diameter, made of foam plastic to protect the driver's chest in the event he is thrown forward with sufficient force to break off the steering wheel.

—Front and rear seats designed to support the passengers' heads against whiplash during a severe rear end collision.

—Foam cushions along the top and back of the front seats to protect rear seat passengers who might be thrown forward.

—All panel instruments recessed and surrounded by foam plastic padding.

—Two-piece sectional front seat, with only the driver's one-third section adjustable, while the other two-thirds is fixed solidly to the floor.

—Floor-anchored seat belts on retractable reels equipped with automatic inertia-locking device which are activated by sudden thrust.

—Door handles built into padded arm rests and window cranks which retract into padded "buttons."

—Padded roof and door pillars with doors equipped with warning lights that flick on when a door is opened.

All features of this car are of experimental design and in various stages of development. While some of these features may never prove to be practical or feasible this is the type of investigation that is being carried out to further increase future driving safety.

Thus science is being called on to define and analyze physiological responses and behavior patterns of the automobile driver and translate those findings into safer automobiles for the expanding range of travel afforded by improved highways, more efficient vehicles and an economic situation that provides greater opportunity for travel and encourages a suburban living possible only with private transportation. A recent survey indicates that the automobile companies spend more than $5,500,000 annually in safety research beyond the cost of model changes and product improvement. Additionally vast amounts of finance and effort are expended in all areas of driver training, safety education, and cooperative programs in highway engineering and traffic control research. The industry is concerned with all phases of highway safety because that is its life blood—the sale of safe transportation on American highways. ★★★

The Problem of Silence

By Edward F. Fagan

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Fagan entered the Police Department of the City of New York as a Probationary Patrolman in March 1936 and rose through the ranks to Inspector before his retirement in March 1956. He served in the uniformed and detective divisions, and in the Police Academy. He was Captain of the Coney Island patrol precinct, commanded a waterfront detective district as Deputy Inspector, and at the time of retirement commanded the Bureau of Technical Services which includes the Bureau of Criminal Identification, Police Laboratory, Missing Persons Bureau, Photographic Unit, Ballistics Squad, Bomb Squad and Correspondence Bureau. He is presently associated with The Delehanty Institute of New York City in the preparation of material for courses in police administration. Mr. Fagan is an active member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police.*

In this article Inspector Fagan directs attention to a problem—the reluctance of victims and witnesses to disclose information—that is all too familiar to the police everywhere. What is more, however, he offers important suggestions which can be put to work locally in meeting this problem. Chiefs of Police and the men serving under them will find here ideas which may assist them in converting public apathy and indifference into public support and cooperation.

THE degrading spectacle of witnesses' recourse to the Fifth Amendment to evade testimony before recent congressional hearings was not without a beneficial side-effect. Not only was the public aroused and angered but, for possibly the first time, it was made aware of one of the most irritating and onerous problems in law enforcement: the reluctance of victims and witnesses of crimes to cooperate by identification and prosecution of the perpetrators.

Police, prosecutors and courts have long recognized and deplored this serious impediment to effective law enforcement but little has been done to publicize its causes and effects, to seek remedies, or to create local programs to combat the problem.

While the public's recollection of arrogant witnesses "taking the Fifth" is still green and bitter, the present appears to be an ideal time to acquaint that public with the need for cooperation with its local police agency. Lack of cooperation leads not only to inefficient or misdirected allocation of police manpower, thus permitting the guilty to go unpunished, but more tragically it leads to jeopardy of the innocent.

A police agency unaware of the commission of crime or unable through lack of cooperation to identify the perpetrator is not only severely handicapped but is also placed in an unfair position when accounting for its stewardship.

Statistical data even when prepared in scrupulously ethical fashion is notoriously incomplete because of unreported crimes. Police officers commonly relate the experience of learning of previously unreported crimes from a boastful defendant. In the author's experience, a rapist-burglar when finally apprehended not only admitted, but furnished convincing corroboration, of seventeen such crimes, only five of which had been reported by the victims. The distressing realization in such instances is, of course, that some of the later victims may have been spared shame and shock if others had assisted the police in early apprehension by furnishing the details of their own experiences.

In attempting to gain the cooperation of the reluctant, timid, or hostile witness or victim, it is vitally important that the investigator first attempt to learn the reason for the negative attitude. The following are some of those most often encountered.

FEAR

1. Fear of injury to, or impairment of health of self, family, relatives, friends, employees.
2. Lack of confidence in the ability of police to protect against retaliation.
3. Fear that perpetrator will return and repeat his crime.
4. Child fear of parents' wrath, punishment, discipline.
5. Ordered by employer, superior, husband, wife, not to cooperate with police.

APPREHENSION

1. Complainant, witness, was actually participant in crime.
2. Fear of discovery that it was a simulated, not bona-fide crime, to defraud insurer, shipper, partner, wife, etc.
3. Suspicion or belief that a friend, relative, was perpetrator.
4. Fear of exposure of own criminal record, unsavory past or humble origin if now prominent in business, social or public life.
5. Ostracism by relatives, friends, associates.
6. Fear that suspicion will unjustly fall on self.
7. Annoyance by crank telephone calls, letters.
8. Fear of cross-examination by defense counsel.

SHAME

1. Loss to swindler indicated gullibility or desire to make a questionable monetary gain.
2. Victim was patron of prostitute, stag show, gambling game, other illegal or immoral activity at time of loss or injury.
3. Stigmatization as "Informer," "Stool Pigeon," "Rat," etc.
4. Gross carelessness in protecting property from theft.

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BUSINESS

1. Loss of time from business, possible loss of job.
2. Although amount stolen small, insurance premiums may increase.
3. Submission to racketeers through fear of destruction, impairing of business.
4. Unwilling to reveal full amount of loss because of fraud on partner, embezzlement from employer.
5. Property taken was in criminal possession of person from whom taken.
6. Restitution made by embezzler, dishonest employee. Where personal injury occurred, payment or other consideration given.

PUBLICITY

1. Public distrusts intention or ability of police to prevent or suppress harmful publicity.
2. Businessmen dislike portrayal as gullible victims.
3. Female victims of sex crimes fear public, relatives, friends, who may believe lack of normal caution led to crime; possible consent to act.
4. Recluse types dislike publicity of any type.
5. Fear court decisions will force police to reveal identity.
6. Fear investigation and prosecution by Treasury Dept. for tax evasion if amount stolen is publicized.
7. Distorted news stories make complainant appear ridiculous.
8. Fugitives, missing persons, estranged marital partners, do not wish identity or whereabouts publicized.
9. Conservative employers dislike employees to be associated with publicity, notoriety.
10. Police agency lacks adequate public relations program or program is poorly administered. Confidential information constantly "leaks" to press.

PERSONAL BELIEFS

1. Sincere belief of inability to identify, or fear of making mistaken identification.
2. Dislike or distrust of police generally.
3. Victim believes in personal retaliation, retribution, vengeance.
4. Through religious or other belief, blames self; charges loss or injury to experience.
5. Unwilling to destroy or impair reputation or career of youth.
6. Through environment, background or associates, develops a hatred of "squealers" or police informants.
7. Apathetic or indifferent because crime is part of accepted pattern of life in particular environment; considered as a normal residential hazard.
8. Witnesses dislike victim's personality; envy his position in community or wealth.
9. Belief that amount taken was so small or injury so minor that complaint is not warranted.
10. Admiration for successful criminal; misdirected hero worship.

INCONVENIENCE

1. Belief that probable great loss of personal time is not compensated by probable acquittal, probation, or minor sentence.
2. Resentful of previous rude, inconsiderate treatment by police, prosecutor or court when acting as witness or complainant.
3. Possibility of being held as a Material Witness.
4. Property was recovered without reporting to police. Unwilling to be bothered; may have agreed to unlawful compromise.
5. Non-resident unwilling to return to jurisdiction for trial.
6. Crime was only attempt or incomplete; believed insufficient to report.
7. Foresees prolonged nuisance in viewing photographs, identifying suspects in lineups and courts; numerous court postponements and adjournments, conferences in prosecutor's office.

FACTORS WHICH INCREASE RELUCTANCE

The apparent dangers of cooperation with the police have been widely publicized through references to retaliation by criminals, coupled with the occasional unfortunate failure of the press to withhold the identities and photographs of victims and witnesses, when requested. Too, news stories and photographs all too often show extreme brutality to victims, particularly by younger criminals. Timidity is certainly increased by news accounts of trials relating stringent and often savage cross-examination of witnesses, with implications of venality, criminality, stupidity or plain old publicity-seeking. Optimism by the prospective witness is certainly

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not increased by the spate of motion picture and television programs portraying brutal retaliation against informants.

In a time of business recession, possible loss of pay or even of a job makes cooperation unattractive. The union member may additionally fear ostracism for reporting racketeering, kickbacks, or any other form of extortion. To the employer, cooperation may lead to boycotts, picketing, strikes, with attendant loss of business. Some may fear loss of government contracts if the reporting of a crime indicates possibly inadequate security measures. Low witness fees, discourteous treatment and time-consuming court appearances all serve to create or increase reluctance to cooperate.

There has been a great increase in the larger cities of those population groups most susceptible to fear of retaliation; who prefer to exact personal vengeance; who are apathetic in their acceptance of crime; or who are often related to or acquainted with the perpetrator. The spreading of slum areas has brought these people into close contact with older residents who fear retribution for assisting the police. Unfortunately the number of those who are most likely to cooperate is being greatly diminished through their removal to the suburbs.

Stories of the Mafia, of the Appalachian Conference" in New York State, and the murder of persons such as Albert Anastasia tend to confirm the public's belief in the existence of nationwide organized crime, and the ability of that organization to commit crime without effective police action being taken.

Official admission by any police agency that it is seriously undermanned and therefore unable to give maximum protection to the community does little to increase the desire of the public to give full cooperation.

In a public surfeited with evidence of dishonesty and insincerity by its public officials, labor leaders and businessmen, it should not be strange to find a spirit of apathy with attendant loss of faith in, and a desire to cooperate with its police. "What's the use?" sums up the attitude of those aware of so-called "Cash Register Justice"—acceptance of bargain pleas, of minimum sentences, acquittals, mistrials, abuses of parole and probation.

Nor is this indifference or futility lessened by news of strikes and riots by prison inmates, of the relative comforts of modern prison life, as well as the lenient legal and judicial procedures employed in the treatment of younger criminals and recidivists. In the larger cities a widespread cynicism may exist leading to acceptance of crime as part of modern living in a metropolitan area.

ENCOURAGING ASPECTS

The outlook is not entirely gloomy. Need has been shown for public cooperation to reduce the national crime bill, and to rebuild the moral fibre of youth for national defense. The Kefauver and McClellan hearings created a public awareness of the scope of criminal operations, and the alarming growth of juvenile delinquency. A more informed public therefore checks more closely on the effectiveness of its police agency and is more willing to cooperate through knowledge of the issues.

J. Edgar Hoover in the annual report of the F.B.I. for the past several years has credited private information and public cooperation with the solution of many crimes and the arrest of perpetrators.

The stigma of "Informer" can no longer be considered as applicable to the public-spirited citizen. The police, prosecutors, courts and the press publicly commend the courageous witness or complainant. Many police agencies award commendations or citations to such persons to be displayed proudly.

Evidence of the public's knowledge of the police problem is shown by general approval of funds to increase and expand police services. Modernization of a police department serves to increase the respect of the public for an organization operated on sound scientific and business principles.

Recent large increases in church membership indicates mounting acknowledgement of moral responsibility. This is vividly illustrated by the success of coordinating councils, youth councils, police athletic leagues and similar units which depend on public assistance in crime prevention work.

The spread of urban slum areas impels residents of adjoining areas to closer cooperation with the police, but there are also many encouraging signs that the low-income newcomers are being rapidly assimilated and learning new moral values, of the necessity for police cooperation, and that the police is a benevolent and not a repressive agency such as formerly experienced. Occupants of public low-rent housing projects rapidly learn that cooperation is a requisite to retention of status as desirable tenants.

In commercial life, common sense dictates cooperation since increased crime is reflected in increased taxes and, among other things, prohibi-

tively expensive insurance. Elimination of racketeering brings about improved labor-management relationships.

A PROGRAM FOR OBTAINING GREATER COOPERATION

The police agency, which is most directly and adversely affected by this problem of silence, is also in the best position to combat the problem. The following suggestions are offered:

PUBLICITY

1. Intensive publicity campaign by all in law enforcement to stress the need for public cooperation.

2. News feature stories lauding citizens who assist in identification and conviction of criminals.

3. Use of all media to publicize efficiency of department, ability to protect public, apprehend and convict perpetrators, to develop confidence of public.

4. Use of statistical and other data to show rarity of cases where complainants or witnesses have been injured through cooperation.

5. Stress the fact that even a modern, efficient police agency cannot effect complete law enforcement without public cooperation.

6. Emphasize basic duty of a good citizen: that failure to help does great harm and injustice to the whole community.

7. Enlist support of radio and TV dramatic programs to portray value of cooperation.

8. Give widespread publicity to police telephone numbers and addresses for receipt of confidential information. Stress desire and ability of police to conceal identity of informants.

9. Give full coverage to stories, ceremonies, where public commendation is awarded to courageous citizens.

10. Publicize cases which could not have been prosecuted without public cooperation; make this a feature of annual report.

GROUP COOPERATION

1. Prepare and disseminate to schools instruction material for use of teachers to inculcate children with spirit and need of cooperation with law enforcement agencies.

2. Enlist support of religious, fraternal and social organizations to illustrate to members that non-cooperation is a disservice to the community and to the aims of the organization.

3. Through chambers of commerce, merchant associations, boards of trade, service organizations, point out to businessmen the losses incurred through silence.

4. Furnish qualified speakers and appropriate printed material to neighborhood groups and clubs in low-income "minority" areas to acquaint them with aims and policies of police; protection of informants, complainants, witnesses.

5. Appeal to employers to urge employee cooperation.

6. Encourage individuals, organizations, to offer rewards, citations and testimonials to those who furnish important and unusual assistance to the police.

POLICE, COURTS AND LEGISLATION

1. Afford greater protection to witnesses, complainants, informants; treat courteously and with consideration for loss of time, inconvenience, risks incurred.

2. Thoroughly investigate and when necessary severely discipline those responsible for unnecessarily revealing identity of informants, witnesses.

3. Use all resources to apprehend and convict those who threaten, injure or attempt to injure those cooperating with the police; thoroughly publicize all details.

4. Laws for protection of witnesses should be strengthened and broadened to include all who cooperate in any way in the identification or prosecution of criminals.

5. Police guarding of witnesses should be increased. In most cases this is furnished only in exceptional instances.

6. Communities should adopt a more liberal policy of payment of claims where witness or complainant is injured as a result of cooperation.

7. Witness fees, travel and meal allowances should be increased.

8. Remove stigma of "Informer" through departmental awards to civilians who assist.

9. Exact severe penalties, with maximum publicity, for those who refuse to cooperate without valid and legal reason.

10. Courts should exercise extreme caution in extending lenient treatment to convicted persons.

11. Courts should afford greater protection to witnesses from aggravating conduct of defense counsel.

12. Courts must give greater consideration to possible inconveniences of People's witnesses when considering requests by defense counsel for postponements, adjournments and technical delays.

13. Prompt and thorough investigation should be made of all information offered by civilians. Appreciation should be expressed whether or not information proved of value.

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Civil-Military Police Partnership

By Major General Haydon L. Boatner

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Military Police of the United States Army have turned in an enviable record all the way from the beginning to their far-flung operations of today. The basic nature of police activity brings the Military Police and the Civilian Police into close working contact and it is a matter of joint professional pride to note the spirit and fact of mutual cooperation that has characterized the operation of these two services. It is a pleasure to present the following article written exclusively for the* JOURNAL *by Major General Boatner, an article that will prove of unusual interest to personnel in all branches of the law enforcement field.*

THE increasing complexity of modern American society requires police systems be developed into more efficient, better trained, highly professional agencies. It is imperative that the police profession grow and expand concurrently with our social and economic development and that it comprise personnel who are prepared to enforce our laws which are becoming increasingly complex. We need only view the revolutionary changes which have taken place in police work in recent years to realize this progressive growth is being accomplished and our police forces are being forced by necessity to "come of age."

The fact that American police agencies have made more rapid progress in the past few decades than any other nation is a tribute to dedicated police administrators. This progress has been made possible by the increased support given these administrators by their civil government seniors. Also of significance is the recognition of law enforcement as a profession, and the acceptance of police work as a career have given police systems an increased importance and respect in the minds of the American people. This has primarily been made possible by increased pay and career attractiveness made possible by civic government.

Similarly, the Military Police Corps of today has gained a greater importance in the United States Army. As our Army has become more professional and significant to America, the stature of its Military Police Corps also has increased. The development of the Corps to its present permanent status is due in no small part to assistance received from civil police. We have greatly benefited from many men with civil enforcement backgrounds who have become leaders in our Corps of professional, career military policemen. For example, Brigadier General Edward F. Penaat, the present Provost Marshal of United States Army, Europe, was a principal assistant to the Deputy Chief of Police, San Francisco Police Department, before entering the military service.* Colonel Thomas F. Lancer, former Provost Marshal of Eighth United States Army and presently the senior police advisor to the Republic of Korea Army, was a new York State trooper. The very famous and heroic Major General William F. Dean who received the Congressional Medal of Honor for his service in Korea was a patrolman in the Berkeley Police Force while working his way through the University of California. Of course, we have many other top men in the military police with fine civil police backgrounds and experience.

In addition to the specialized skills these persons brought to our Corps, they helped establish the camaraderie between civil police forces and the United States Army military police. One of my first impressions upon being appointed The Provost Marshal General, after more than thirty years service as an Infantry combat officer, was the mutual understanding and respect between our organizations. It was gratifying to find that the intelligent cooperation which exists at the provost marshal-police chief level permeates each succeeding echelon. This is as it should be. It lends credence to the military axiom that when friendly organizations strive for a common objective, mutual support and understanding are prerequisite to success.

I have recently attempted to solidify our mutual support and understanding by proposing a program which I believe to be beneficial to both military and civilian police agencies. This proposal was contained in a letter forwarded to police chiefs of twenty-four major cities in the United States and to each State Police Chief advising them of the opportunities available to young civilian policemen for increasing their law enforcement knowledge while discharging their military obligation.

All young men up to the age of twenty-six who enter active military service today have a six year military obligation. This is true whether they enter via selective service or voluntarily enlist. However, under current regulations, young men who *voluntarily enlist* may choose the Army branch in which they wish to serve. The Army Recruiting Service will be most happy to outline the details of this option. This choice allows an individual to pick the branch that will give him experience in that field of greatest interest to him.

As regards the six year obligation,

Address: Major General Haydon L. Boatner, The Provost Marshal General of the U.S. Army, Washington, D.C.

* See photographs on facing page.

Brigadier General Penaat as a police officer in the San Francisco Police Department.

Brigadier General Edward F. Penaat, Provost Marshal of the United States Army in Europe.

the voluntary Regular Army enlistee must serve a minimum of three years on a full-time basis in the active Army, one year in the Ready Reserve, and two years in the Standby Reserve. The Ready Reserve is composed of those men required by law to participate in prescribed reserve duty drills and/or annual active duty for training who are subject to order to active duty in an emergency declared by the President. The Standby Reserve consists of those who have a remaining service obligation but who give none of their time to active service, and who are subject to order to active duty in a national emergency declared by Congress.

In recent years certain groups of young men such as scientists, doctors, lawyers, engineers, etc., have been quite successful in combining their civilian careers with their military service. The same opportunity is available to young men who have chosen and entered the law enforcement profession as a career and those who have gone through police academies or have had some service as a policeman. This means that if an individual volunteers for service in the Military Police Corps, he is virtually insured a continuation of police duties and an accumulation of police experience. Normally the entire period of active service will be devoted to military police duty. In addition to military police training there is an opportunity for formal education through correspondence courses for high school and college credit. When leaving the active service the individual, wherever possible, is assigned to a military police reserve unit for fulfillment of the Ready Reserve portion of his service obligation. Of course, no assurance as to precise assignment or specific tour of duty can be made.

The advantages of this plan are readily apparent. It can have a valuable and beneficial effect on the Military Police Corps, since we acquire young men with civilian police training who desire to be military policemen. At the same time a continuing benefit will accrue to the individual and, in turn, his police department. As a result of the police training and experience gained while in the Army, I can assure you that we will return men to civilian life whose value and future have been improved by their military service.

This suggestion has been received with enthusiasm by many of our police departments. In fact, one department is studying a method by which we can work together to recruit high school graduates and young men who are not yet old enough to become civilian policemen but are old enough to enlist in the Army and start their training for police work.

With this spirit of cooperation and sincerity we can look forward to future progress and the bright prospect of continued partnership between our civil and military police agencies. ★★★

Boy Scouts Announce New Exploring Program

By George K. Myers

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Boy Scout movement has long since established itself in the hearts of the American people. No less important, the impact of this social institution with its standards and ideals upon the behavior patterns of youth is a matter of unusual import to police administration at the prevention level. It is significant that the Boy Scout program is now being extended to reach young men of high school age and the* JOURNAL *is pleased to present the following article concerning this expanded activity. Further information may be obtained by addressing the author who is National Director of Civic Relationships for the Boy Scouts of America, with headquarters in New Brunswick, New Jersey.*

THE Boy Scouts of America, this fall, is launching a new Exploring program for high-school age young men. Based on extensive scientific study the program is designed to attract high-school age boys regardless of whether they have ever been Boy Scouts or not.

A "Study of Adolescent Boys" was undertaken for the Boy Scouts of America by the Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, at the University of Michigan. This study learned the needs, interests, and concerns of fourteen- to sixteen-year-old boys—the demands on their leisure time—what they do and like most to do.

A "Study of Youth Leaders" by the Survey Research Center involved interviews with over three hundred adults known to be successful in working with boy groups and boy-girl groups.

The Research Service of the Boy Scouts of America studied the operation of the previous Exploring program and the kind of uniforms most appealing to this age group. Opinions of girls of these ages were also sought.

Audience Research, Inc., of Princeton, New Jersey, determined among Explorers and nonmembers the best titles for boy and adult officers of the new Exploring groups.

A series of two-day meetings was then held across the country with 208 educators; civic organization heads; youth-serving agency leaders; church, community, industrial, and labor leaders; sociologists and psychologists. These authorities were asked, "What do you think this study tells us that the Boy Scouts of America should do for boys?"

The results of these meetings were reviewed in a second series of meetings with persons closely associated with the Boy Scouts of America and with boys who had not been Explorers.

Explorers in the new program suggest, select, plan, and conduct activities under an adult volunteer leader known as the Advisor. Explorers elect a president, vice president, secretary, treasurer, quartermaster, and two cabinet representatives as officers of their post.

The Explorer post is sponsored by a civic, religious, or educational organization which supplies the Advisor, a post committee, a meeting place, and a liaison member of the local Scout council called the institutional representative.

Delegate gatherings of Advisors and cabinet representatives will plan and carry out Explorer activities on a district, council, and national basis.

Each new member will participate in a new national admissions ceremony which will include his understanding the aims of Exploring, his acceptance of the Explorer Code, the Scout Oath or Promise, and the pledge of allegiance to the flag of the United States of America. As a new member he will accept these principles by signing the post membership roll.

The new Explorer motto is "Our best today—for a better tomorrow" and the Explorer Code says:

"As an Explorer—

I believe that America's strength lies in her trust in God and in the courage and strength of her people.

I will, therefore, be faithful in my religious duties and will maintain a personal sense of honor in my own life.

I will treasure my American heritage and will do all I can to preserve and enrich it.

I will recognize the dignity and worth of my fellow men and will use fair play and good will in dealing with them.

I will acquire the Exploring attitude that seeks the truth in all things and adventure on the frontiers of our changing world."

Activities of Explorers will fall into these six experience areas—citizenship, personal fitness, social, vocational, avocational, and service. Specialty interests will be encouraged. This will permit a post to gain the assistance of experts and the use of necessary equipment and facilities in pursuing a specialty interest. Members of posts sponsored by industrial and other groups will share the particular interests of their sponsors. Posts may adopt and change their specialties from time to time.

Some specialties already being followed are: aviation, agriculture, aquatics, automobiling, chemistry, conservation, electronics, fishing, hi-fi, Indian lore, model building, moun-

Address: George K. Myers, National Director, Civic Relationships, Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

tain climbing, rockets, space travel, and square dancing.

Printed with a four color cover and in two colors throughout, the new Explorer handbook is written to appeal to high-school age youth. It contains more than two-years suggested activities described in detail and is now available.

A new emblem symbolizing the new Exploring program will appear on the green field uniform, casuals, and the new dress blue Explorer blazer.

The emblem suggests a theme of directed movement and controlled speed. It brings to mind such ideas as jet propulsion, satellites, unexplored space, the adventure and opportunity of the future. It symbolizes an Exploring program that is modern, forward-looking, creative, forceful, dynamic. The two prisms represent the Explorer's duty to self and duty to fellow men. As these merge, they point into infinity, symbolic of his duty to God. The circles represent the environment in which the Explorer lives today, giving worthwhile direction to his life as he moves toward manhood. Explorers move from the lessons of the past, through the experiences of the present, on into the challenges of the future. The circles represent the Explorer's environment—his home, his school, his community, and his nation. The colors remind him of his American heritage. The traditional fleur-de-lis stands for the Explorer's affiliation with the Boy Scouts of America and the world brotherhood of Scouting.

Group meetings are being held this fall in which National staff leaders are training all local council professional Scouters. Similar training meetings will be held to indoctrinate volunteer Scouters in the aims and practices of the new Exploring program.

More than 460,000 young men are now enrolled in the Exploring program of the Boy Scouts of America and the number is expected to increase rapidly as the new program is promoted among all high-school age young men. ★★★

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COMPENSATION TO VICTIMS OF VIOLENCE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Tears for the killer with scant notice of the victim seems to be too much in the order of things. The following letter to the Editor of* THE LONDON TIMES *is reproduced in the interest of stimulating thought on the subject in this country. It might have a salutary effect if under the terms of the court sentence, the perpetrator of a crime of violence was required to participate in the proposed compensation plan with failure to do so at an appropriate time to be regarded as compounding the original criminal act.*

To the Editor of *The London Times:*

One of the causes to which Miss Margery Fry was devoting herself before her death was the provision of compensation for the victims of crimes of violence.

She was perplexed and distressed by this anomaly in our legal system which expects a maimed, disfigured or mentally injured person, or indeed the family of a breadwinner who has been murdered, to feel that justice has been done when the criminal concerned is caught and punished. In nearly every such case the assailant is without the means to compensate his victim, even if the sentencing court had jurisdiction to make an order in this regard or the victim were able to bring a successful action for damages in a civil court.

Miss Fry originated a practicable scheme for ending this anomaly and herself financed a considerable amount of research. This has established on a sound statistical basis that the total cost of compensating victims on the modest scale appropriate to claimants under the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act would not exceed 150,000 in any one year.

There is already some precedent in our law under the Riot (Damages) Act for compensating owners whose property is damaged by the failure of the authorities to suppress that particular form of violent crime and it may seem strange that the community's responsibility for the usually much more distressing cases of personal injuries or the loss of the support of a husband or father has not been similarly recognized.

The all-party council of this society was greatly impressed by the arguments put forward by Miss Fry and her associates in this cause and wholeheartedly supports her proposals. We venture to suggest that their adoption now would provide an entirely fitting memorial to the work of a remarkable woman to whom humanity owes much.

Yours faithfully,

Hartley Shawcross (Chairman), John Foster (Vice-Chairman), David Cairns (Member of Executive Committee), British Section of the International Commission of Jurists.—*The London Times*, May 5, 1958.

MAIER-LAVATY of Chicago tailors this new reefer of "Dacron"* polyester fiber, "Orlon"** acrylic fiber and wool, with interlining of 100% "Dacron" fiberfill.

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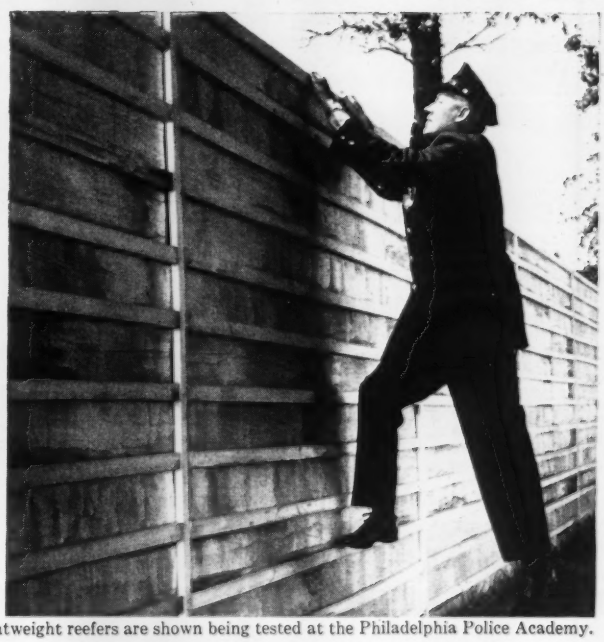

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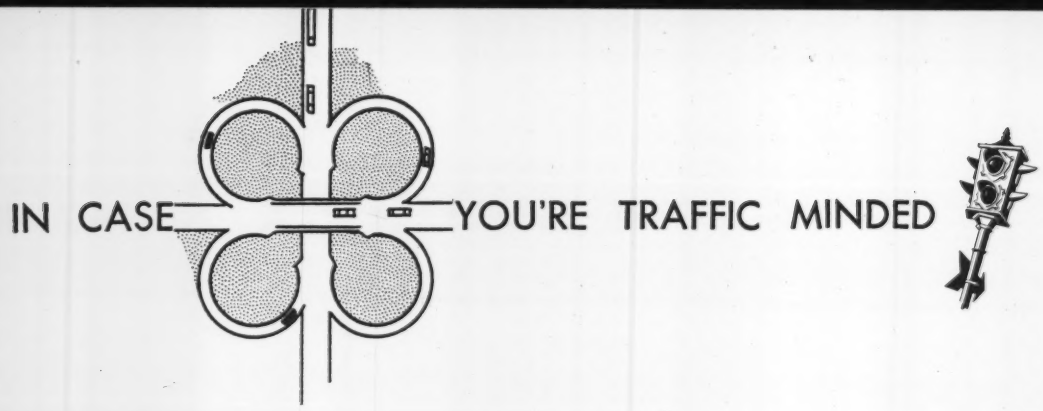


The Driving Simulator*

By S. F. Hulbert and J. H. Mathewson

IT is the purpose of this paper to present a description of a proposed driving simulator and a statement of the need for such a device in traffic safety research.

Each year there are many meetings, conferences, symposia, and committees devoted to finding ways and means for reducing the toll of traffic accidents. One major theme in the proceedings and write-ups of all these discussions is that there are likely to be no simple answers, no quick or easy solutions. After some 30 years of research in the field of traffic safety and driver behavior, there is a multitude of negative findings or failures to find correlations between driver measures and accidents.

Following the statement that there is no easy solution, the results of these meetings, conferences, etc. seem to follow a pattern. Generally, there are expressions about the need for the following: (1) more and stricter law enforcement; (2) more severe penalties for traffic law violations; (3) adoption of a national uniform traffic code; (4) more and intensified safety campaigns; (5) increased support of driver education programs; (6) stricter driver licensing; and (7) more research into the human factors that are involved in the motor vehicle accident. The latter item stems from the recognition that driver error, primarily, accounts for 80 per cent or more of the vehicle accidents producing deaths or injuries and that herein lies the crux of the problem.[1]

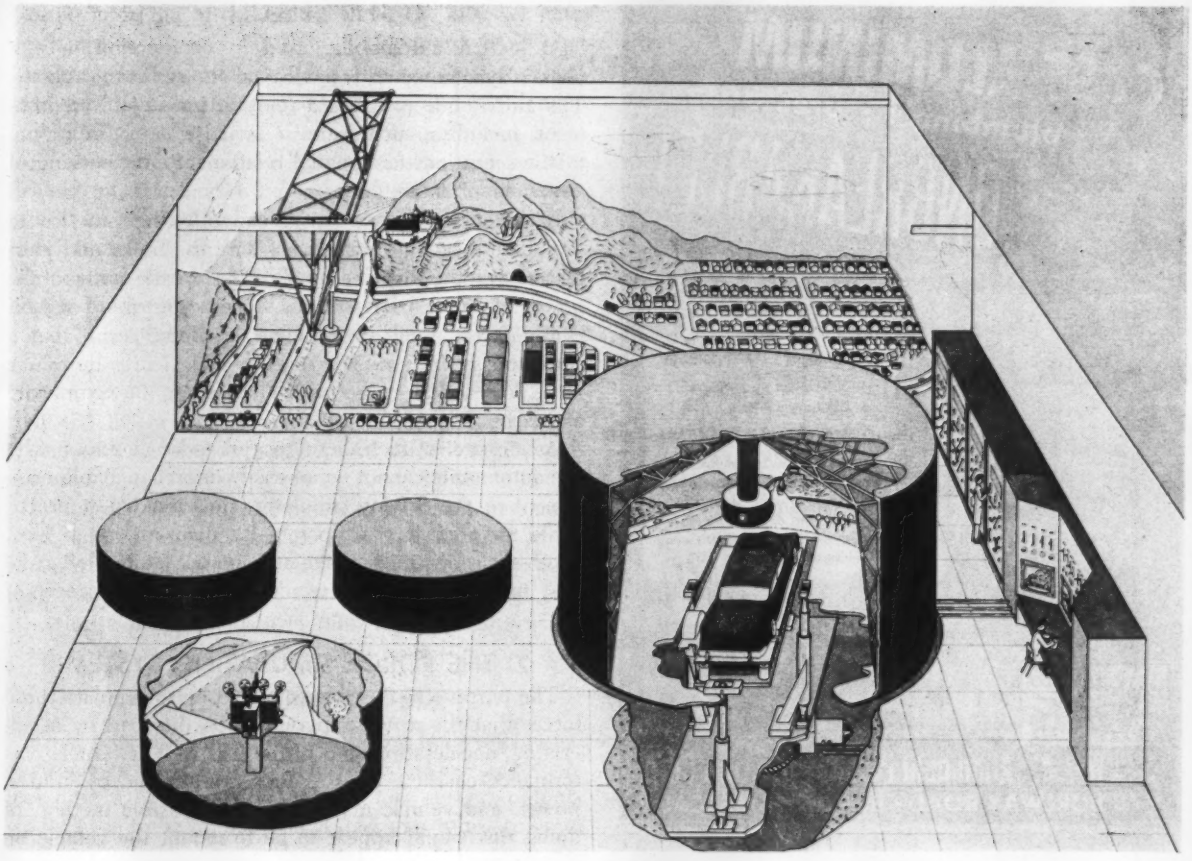
Let us consider a means whereby we can perhaps implement the suggestions of these various groups as to the last two items mentioned, stricter licensing and more research into the human factors involved in traffic accidents. Clearly, these two subjects go hand in hand and we must face the fact that in driver licensing we are probably going to have to allow nearly all persons to drive unless we can discover through experimentally validated tests incontrovertible evidence that certain persons should not be permitted to drive. These validated tests certainly cannot be developed except through more research in human factors. The measurement of driving performance, as with the measurement of anything, requires some standards, units, or references. We find, upon looking into the matter, that there are no experimentally useful standards for the measurement of driving behavior. Consideration of any proposed research in driving behavior leads to this same problem, namely, that of measurement. It is not possible to measure driving performance so that we can say, for instance, that the taking of 10 tranquilizing pills over a period of a week will or will not affect a driver's behavior, at least not in quantitative values that can be effectively utilized.

To date there are underway at least three major attempts at setting up criteria of driving performance. One is the work done with the army transportation corps under the direction of Uhlaner.[2] This work has resulted in a rating scale of driving performance whereby the observer rides with the driver and proceeds to rate him on a series of five-point scales. A second and more recent attempt at setting up criteria of driving performance is the work at Iowa under the direction of Lauer.[3] Lauer is now able to measure the amount of steering wheel movement, the number of times the brake is applied, maximum pressure applied to the brake, and other objective measures of driving performance, and to relate these to a rating scale which he developed some years ago. British investigators in the Road Research Laboratory[4] and the British Medical Research Council[5] have also reported the attempt to define some objective criteria of driving performance following somewhat along the lines of the work of Lauer whereby they record objective measures such as speed, deceleration, and smoothness of ride while driving over a closed course.

All three of these approaches ought to be encouraged and applauded, but there is need, really urgent need, for a series of research attempts to set up and define criteria

* Based upon a paper presented before the Western Psychological Association, Thirty-Eighth Annual Meeting, April 24-26, 1958, Monterey, California.

Address: Dr. S. F. Hulbert, Institute of Transportation and Traffic Engineering, University of California at Los Angeles.



DRIVING SIMULATOR RESEARCH FACILITY

An automobile is "driven" on steel rollers and the driver views a scene that is relayed by TV. The driver's actions control the movement of the TV camera across the model landscape. The motion picture projection booths (left foreground) provide the driving scene to the driver when he leaves the model landscape. Physical movement is simulated by tilting the entire platform (right foreground). Computers (right side) handle the complex task of coordinating movements of the tilting platform and TV camera.

for driving performance which would be of a different nature than any of those mentioned above. This research would involve a situational approach leading to the definition of various traffic situations in which the driver may find himself.

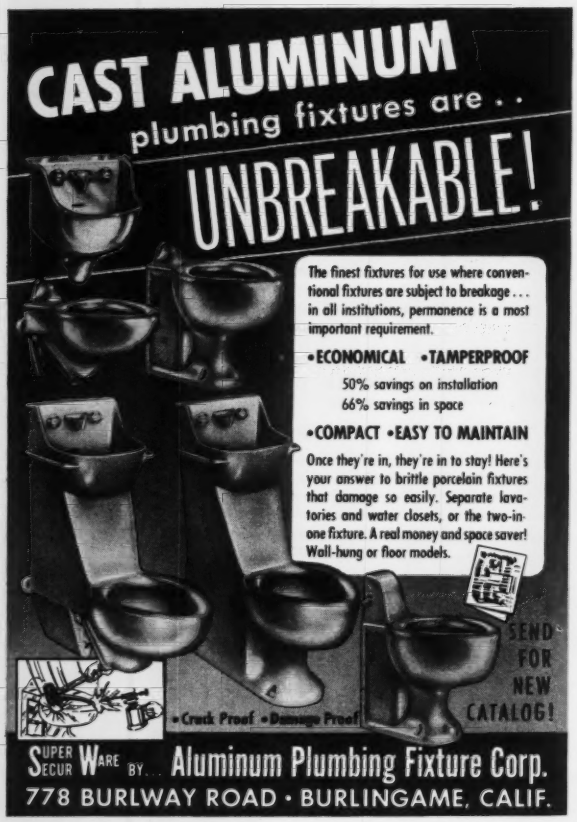
The number of variables in this approach is prodigious. In the actual accident situation—or for that matter the normal driving situation—they are so numerous and transient that it is seldom possible to reconstruct them. To establish them in the laboratory requires a synthesis of equipment not heretofore accomplished or perhaps even attempted in driver behavior research. It is this equipment that we have in mind when we speak of a driving simulator.

The idea of a driving simulator is not, of course, entirely new. Devices that have simulated some limited portions of the driving environment have proved useful in studying certain elements of driver behavior and, as technological advances have occurred over the past forty years, there have been several praiseworthy attempts at building a more comprehensive simulator for purposes of research.

It is the field of aviation, however, which demonstrates that a truly useful driving simulator is now technically possible. Aviation, like motor-vehicle operation, is a complex system of man, machine, and environment in which safety is so important an aspect. In aviation it has long been recognized that the study of human performance in the system provides the keys to safe operations. Out of such study has come the flight simulator. Flight simulators make possible experimental control of flight situations, repetition of these situations, extensive measurement of pilot performance and human observation by persons who are not part of the situation under test. In other words, flight simulators provide the essential conditions for experimental research.

The similarities between the aviation and surface transportation systems seem sufficiently obvious to make it plain that both the physical technology and the techniques of experimental design and statistical analysis that have made possible the flight simulator also make practicable the driving simulator—not at some dim, future time, but now.

As may already have been implied, the driving simu-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lator consists of equipment that will make it possible for a driver to "drive" an "actual" automobile in an "actual" traffic situation, but in the laboratory where the event can be controlled, measured, and analyzed in detail. By the words "drive" and "actual" we mean that the simulator would permit a driving performance, and establish conditions of environment so similar to those on the street or highway that we would for the most practical purposes be observing a driver as he in fact drives on the road.

In general terms, we visualize the driving simulator as consisting of an actual automobile operating on a chassis dynamometer. This entire assembly could be made to tilt in both the longitudinal and transverse directions, thereby making it possible to subject the driver to forces similar to those acceleration forces experienced on the road. Also part of this movable unit would be television screens providing the visual environment of the driver. A system of computers and servo-mechanisms would provide the feedback controls through which the performance of the driver would alter his simulated environments.

In considering the simulator in somewhat greater detail we may regard it as consisting of five components or aspects: (1) the vehicle proper; (2) the associated mechanical system for simulating the force environment; (3) the optical system for simulating the visual environment; (4) the feedback system, and (5) the means of measuring results.

1. THE VEHICLE

An actual automobile, used in conjunction with a chassis dynamometer, is the logical choice for the vehicle. The automobile provides a realistic immediate environment, including such features as noise, odor, vibration, tactile sensations and spatial relations, to say nothing of a variety of intangibles.

In flight simulators it is frequently the practice to duplicate a cockpit, dispensing with the bulky and inert features of the airplane as a whole. In the automobile, however, many parts of the vehicle contribute significantly to the total environment, with the result that a substitute for the vehicle itself would clearly introduce more losses than gains, including those in complexity and cost.

As a matter of fact, there appears to be no reason why the automobile cannot be an easily interchangeable component of the driving simulator, thus making it practicable for a subject to operate his own car, or at least another car of similar make and model. Quite obviously, this interchangeability would avoid obsolescence of this basic simulator component.

2. THE FORCE SIMULATING SYSTEM

The purpose of this system would be to simulate those forces that the driver experiences on the road by accelerating, decelerating, and turning, as well as vehicle performance characteristics as they are affected by grades, power, and vehicle mass. The most feasible method of doing this would appear to be to mount the vehicle on a chassis dynamometer, which is to say a roller-type tread mill.

Tilting of this complete assembly would be used to simulate the various forces. When, for example, the driver turned to the right, the assembly would tilt to the left, so that a component of gravitational force would be felt to the left, simulating the centrifugal force experienced in an actual turn on the roadway. Trial experimentation with a tilting chair has shown this to be quite realistic.

The effect of grades and of vehicle mass can be easily and realistically simulated through the introduction of suitable inertia into the dynamometer. Thus the driver would experience the sensations arising out of vehicle performance as it would be, for example, when climbing up a hill or coasting down.

As will be evident, the foregoing would involve a considerable amount of mechanism of new design for universal tilting of the vehicle-dynamometer assembly at appropriate rates. It does not, however, present any design problems for which solutions cannot readily be visualized. We believe that the principal problems in the effective development of this unit would be in connection with its control; these are further referred to under item 4 below.

3. THE VISUAL SIMULATING SYSTEM

Here we plan to confront our test driver with a visual scene in full motion that is so realistic as to make him

feel he is driving in actual traffic. In the past we have used motion pictures for limited simulation of driving situations with most gratifying results. One study of highway directional signing, for example, was carried out by having test subjects view motion pictures taken from a moving car so that the signs were seen as in a driving situation; and here, even without simulating other features of the driving environment, we were able to obtain useful information about response to different sign designs (results that have led to a change in sign design by the California Division of Highways).

A means of visually simulating a dynamic situation is to use closed circuit television. For example, a television camera viewing a scale-model scene of traffic could present the driver in the simulator a represented traffic scene, with his speed, position, and direction fully portrayed.

We should make it clear that this television simulation of a surface traffic situation is something still to be brought into being. It is well worth noting, however, that the Douglas Aircraft Company is presently constructing a flight simulator for its DC-8 aircraft which incorporates a projection television system of this sort.

4. THE FEEDBACK SYSTEM

From the foregoing discussion of the force and visual environments it is apparent that for extensive simulation, including a dynamic driving situation, several outputs would have to be tapped, integrated, and translated into appropriate feedback signals to appropriate servo-mechanisms. The realism of the dynamic situation as presented to the driver would depend upon the accuracy, speed, and reliability of this feedback system. In our estimation, the perfection of this feedback system would be the principal item of both time and dollar costs in the overall simulator development. It is worth emphasizing, however, that here we are contemplating application to a specific purpose of techniques and equipment that are generally available.

5. MEANS OF MEASURING RESULTS

There appear to be no insurmountable difficulties with respect to techniques of measurement. Vehicle speed would be dynamometer speed. Vehicle direction and displacement could be integrated from vehicle speed and steering gear motion. These are complete measures of final performance, as far as the vehicle is concerned.

Turning to the driver, head and eye movements, complex reaction time, and his reaction time in the operation of specific car controls can be measured by straightforward application of standard procedures and equipment. In some studies it might also be appropriate to use such measures as galvanic skin response, breathing and pulse rate, blood pressure, skin and body temperature, tactile sensitivity, and supraorbital muscle potential—these and many others being obtainable with standard techniques in no way compromised by the fact that they would be performed in the driving simulator. Still further, there would presumably also be occasion to conduct before and after driving anaylses by measurements through attitude scales, urine and blood chemistry analysis, psychomotor tests, vision examinations and, perhaps, a variety of questionnaires.

As was mentioned earlier, the most important use of the driving simulator would be for obtaining quantitative criteria of driving performance. Almost without exception, inability to establish such criteria has been the factor that has up to now made driver studies ineffectual.

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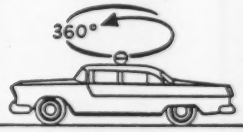

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The Role of Alcohol in the Traffic Safety Problem

By Robert F. Borkenstein

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Captain Borkenstein has been Director of the Indiana State Police Laboratory for the past twenty years. He is a member of the National Safety Council's Committee on Tests for Intoxication and is the designer of the well known* BREATHALYZER, *an instrument for measuring blood alcohol concentration. Police training at the university and college level passed another important milestone in its steady development with the acceptance by Captain Borkenstein on July 1 of the appointment as Chairman of the Department of Police Administration at Indiana University, with the rank of Associate Professor.*

MODERN traffic congestion and high speeds impose an ever increasing demand on today's drivers to maintain a high level of skill. Even more important is the necessity to learn to make decisions accurately and rapidly. Driver training and retraining are directed at this problem. This skill and decision making must become second nature to the driver if he is to survive.

After driving becomes a learned skill, with considerable experience, an inter-relation between ability and performances develops. The driver with low native skill adjusts his driving to compensate. This relationship becomes so stable that driving becomes almost subconscious. As long as nothing interferes with this adjustment the driver will probably remain accident free. He drives within his limitations.

There are factors that can upset this relationship by breaking down ability while an accompanying compensation in performance does not follow. Fatigue, illness, over-confidence, sorrow, joy, preoccupation are a few of these. Unless the driver adjusts his performance when his ability is lessened, he becomes accident prone. A number of surveys are currently under way to study the relationship of these factors to accidents. We can say with some justification that these causes are somewhat involuntary. The driver does not deliberately bring them on.

However, the lessening of driving ability by the excessive use of alcohol, narcotics, and other drugs is voluntary and because of this volition, it becomes a criminal offense. While narcotics, barbiturates, and certain other drugs are problems, alcohol is by many, many times the greatest one. It is readily obtainable, it is legal, and is not too expensive. It does not have the stigma of a narcotic, being socially accepted.

Surveys show a shocking number of drivers operating their cars under the influence of alcohol. Holcomb found that in Evanston, Illinois, 12% of 1,750 drivers stopped at random over a week's time at all hours had blood alcohols in excess of .05%. A recent survey in Buffalo, N.Y., showed 13% of drivers with similar levels. This confirmed findings of a similar but more extensive survey in Toronto, Ontario. These were not accident drivers but drivers stopped at random.

The accident records do not generally reflect the true effect of this drinking segment of the driving population on the total accidents. The average driver will not report the other driver involved in an accident as being under the influence of alcohol unless he is obviously drunk, especially if claims are promptly taken care of. This is even true of police officers who will often fail to report a driver as drinking unless the driver displays symptoms of actual drunkenness to the extent of warranting arrest.

Thus drivers who are definitely impaired in their driving ability but who are not "drunk" in the usual sense of the word often get by. The modern recognition of the "fringe" drinker as more dangerous than the easily recognizable "drunk" must and will change this picture if law enforcement is to deal with this part of the traffic safety problem.

When apprehended the drinking driver often is stimulated by fright and does not reveal his true condition. The odor of an intoxicating beverage is not reliable because it is based on the flavoring matter in the beverage and not on the alcohol. Indeed, alcohol alone in forms such as Vodka leaves practically no odor on the breath. Odor, of course, is not quantitative. One drink smells as much as a dozen.

Chemical analysis of body materials containing alcohol proportional to that in the brain and higher nerve centers offers a solution to this problem. The materials generally used for this purpose are brain, blood, urine, spinal fluid, saliva and breath. Breath contains alcohol in proportion to that in the blood and is often used by police as a rapid means of determining whether the subject is sufficiently under the influence to warrant arrest.

There is much evidence in the literature showing the close relationship between the alcohol levels determined by chemical analysis and the effect of these levels on skill and judgment. This work has been done on the animal level, in laboratory tests on the sensory and motor functions of the human body, and in actual driving tests.

Thus there are two types of expressions of the problem. First is the subjective type represented by accident reports. In 1955, accident records of forty-five states varied in their reporting of the percentage of drinking drivers involved in fatal accidents from 1% to 50%. This indicates that either people do not drink in some states or that the reporting is faulty. The higher figures are probably more accurate since they indicate more complete reporting.

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In areas where chemical tests have been made and where near 100% reporting is possible, more objective findings have resulted. Following are a few of the many such studies.

The Montana Highway Patrol reports 55% of drivers killed had been drinking significantly.

Nassau County, N. Y., reports 50%.

Grand Rapids, Michigan, reports 60%.

Westchester County, N. Y., reports 46%.

The Delaware State Police reports 63%.

Baltimore, Maryland, reports 52%.

These reports are based on near 100% reporting backed by chemical tests for intoxication. These figures can by inference carry through to the total accident picture in which such a study would become exceedingly complex.

Toronto, Ontario and Buffalo, N.Y., tested every principal involved in accidents over a given period. At the same time, an equal number of motorists passing the accident scenes were stopped and tested. This offered a control group. The Buffalo survey showed 55% of the principals involved in accidents to have been drinking significantly while only 13% of the control group had been drinking.

Drinking pedestrians seem to lose their sense of caution and attentiveness. This causes them to contribute heavily to the pedestrian casualties. In a number of surveys, about half the pedestrians killed had been drinking. It is interesting to note that of these pedestrians, those who had been drinking usually had very high blood alcohol levels. This indicates that a pedestrian can tolerate higher alcohol levels than a driver before he endangers himself.

In a two year period in Columbus, Ohio, urine alcohols were run on all persons apprehended during or immediately after the commission of crimes. Of these 64% were under the influence of alcohol to such an extent that their inhibitions were reduced.

Whether or not the evidence offered by the chemical test is to be used for prosecution, this evidence becomes an important part of the case. The driver who hits a pedestrian is protected and relieved by the information that the pedestrian was drunk. A high blood alcohol level in a dead driver can explain why he took a foolish chance that precipitated an accident. In many cases it can reverse the apparent cause of an accident and therefore the responsibility.

The chemical test also protects the moderate drinker. While ideally a driver should be alcohol-free, a certain amount can be tolerated without seriously affecting driving skill. The chemical test exonerates the driver in this minimal range.

There is no evidence that this problem is diminishing. It will probably become worse unless evidence of the type I have mentioned is placed before every thinking citizen so that driving while under the influence of alcohol becomes a social disgrace, a moral wrong and a criminal offense. ★★★

The Development of Attitudes Toward Law Enforcement

By Claudine Gibson Wirths

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mrs. Wirths (Phi Beta Kappa) received the A.B. degree in Psychology from the University of Kentucky in 1946. She was awarded the M.A. degree in Clinical Psychology by the same institution in 1948, and has completed course work toward the doctorate at the University of North Carolina, where she was appointed a Teaching Fellow in Psychology. In the interim, she served as Research Assistant in the Department of Psychology at Yale University. She also served as Psychologist for a team of social scientists from the University of North Carolina commissioned by the National Institute of Mental Health to study the impact of the Atomic Energy Commission's Savannah River Plant on the surrounding communities. Subsequently, at the end of this two-year study, she co-authored the monograph,* EDDYVILLE'S FAMILIES, *published by the Institute for Research in the Social Sciences at U. N. C.*

Mrs. Wirths has served as Psychologist for the Aiken, S. C., Police Department since 1953 and among other accomplishments, was selected Aiken County Woman of the Year in 1955 for her work in helping to establish a city juvenile court. Showing rare insight, she presents in the following article one of the most unique and penetrating approaches to the problem of police public relations that has come to the attention of the Editor. It will prove of interest to every American police officer.

THE first law enforcement agent in the dim, misty beginnings of this world was probably a woman. For then, as now, all law enforcement began with the training and protecting of an infant by its mother. And though there is a quite a difference between a cave mother's instinctive actions and a trained policeman's skills, it is necessary to consider both in a study of attitudes toward law enforcement. For the essence of law enforcement is the protection and control of one human by another. And the role of the modern police officer in our culture is understandable only when we view the primitive origins of man's feelings toward controlling and being controlled by others, because these primitive feelings are the core attitudes mankind holds toward law enforcement. It is the influence of the present environment that determines the specific attitudes observable in public and police of today.

Actually we have no way of knowing when early man first conceived the idea of law enforcement. Probably it grew out of animal origins of instinctive training and protecting of each new generation. But at whatever moment in time the spark of human consciousness burst into the flame of wisdom, setting Homo sapiens apart from all the other animals, law enforcement as an idea must have been one of mankind's primary concerns. No two humans can live together without laws, and the more complex a civilization becomes, the more necessary are laws and agents to enforce them.

Although early students of primitive law disagreed sharply (some claiming to have discovered lawless tribes while others believed primitives to be unswervingly law abiding), a paradox was finally found to be true. *Mankind universally has demanded and defied tribal laws.* The modern motorist who exceeds the speed limit when late for a crucial appointment has his realistic counterpart in the primitive tribesman who stole tribal food for his needy family. Personal drives under pressure have always, it seems, over-ridden public censure. It is as if everyone assumes laws are needed to control everybody but himself. Each man demands protection under the law, but reserves the right to be an exception to the law himself. Fortunately for society, most people succumb to social pressures most of the time. They are undoubtedly helped in this direction by efficient law enforcement officers!

But laws and their enforcement, although inextricably related, are two different problems. And man's attitude toward enforcement has been marked since primitive man by an urge for personal vengeance. Thus a society that provides for personal grievances to be handled by impartial, public police has reached a high mark of civilization. Even in the United States there are still traces of the primitive vengeance code in the occasional lynching or mob violence which goes unpunished in a community incensed by a particularly violent and personal crime. And there's hardly a human alive who would not have to fight strong impulses to take the law into his hands if someone near and dear was viciously attacked by a sadistic murderer. Sometimes the veneer of civilization is perilously thin even in the most highly civilized man. Therefore it is no wonder that in the world of professional criminals, they live by the laws of the jungle.

But some people do learn to curb these primitive feelings and force into the foreground the higher need for societal law and order. How this can be accomplished has been the concern of civilized man for a long time, and is now the key problem faced by the overworked psychologists and psychiatrists today.

"Is it not contrary to human nature to accept any constraint as a matter of course, and does man, whether civilized or savage, ever carry out unpleasant, burdensome, cruel regulations and taboos without being compelled to? And compelled by some force or motive which he cannot resist?" asked Malinowski, the great scholar of primitive law.[1]

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Malinowski posed the key question in understanding the development of basic attitudes toward law enforcement. Mankind as noted, is born wilful and egocentric. It is only under the irresistable pressures of life and death as controlled by his parents that an infant is molded into a lawful being. From pain and pleasure the infant learns early that it is dependent upon its parents. Out of this necessary physical conformity comes conformity to ideas and values at a later stage of development. But the channeling of basic drives never comes easy, consequently this early conditioning is often fraught with emotional tensions which may persist throughout the adult life.

There are two significant observations to be drawn from this. The first is that the way this early life-and-death authority is imposed upon the child sets the pattern for how the child will view all people in authority later in life. And the uniformed police is probably the ultimate, visible symbol of authority in the lives of most adults.

The second observation is that the child is molded first by parents and second by the culture in which he lives. But his parents and the views they hold reflect their culture and their parents, etc. back to the beginning of time. Consequently, specific attitudes toward law enforcement are made up of the interplay of society, family culture and personality. The picture is complex.

To take up these observations one at a time, the emotional aspects of authority has been the subject for much study by psychiatrists. They have talked in terms of father-figures and mother-figures. Undoubtedly they have carried these concepts to extremes on occasion. However it is true that if an individual's feelings toward his parents have been respectful and obedient, his attitudes toward a public figure of authority will usually be similar.

Conversely, if he has experienced parental brutality and betrayal of trust, his probable expectations of legal authorities will be predictable. Such a person is likely to be unusually defensive and annoyed by even the most courteous officer. This attitude is probably part of the subconscious motivational structure of the "fighting drunk" who goes out of his way to insult and defy an arresting officer. So a brutal, high-handed officer who conforms to such negative expectations is apt to be a frequent target of projected hatred. This basically emotional, aggressive reaction to police is especially noticeable in juveniles. A clever juvenile officer can oftentimes take advantage of the malleableness of youthful attitudes and turn this aggression to constructive admiration by strong, friendly guidance. In effect he exposes the child to another kind of "parent"—one he can admire and trust.

In a sense the police are a kind of community parent for a lot of people besides juveniles. Surprisingly, many citizens turn to police in precisely the way they once turned to parents for help. Regardless of the problem, they believe the police are well-nigh omnipotent and hopefully seek help with anything from clogged sink drains to wayward daughters. Actually, the incredible resourcefulness and Job-like patience of some officers has made their role as omnipotent parents almost believable!

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But the establishment of general attitudes toward people in authority does not explain the specific attitudes people hold toward law enforcement and its officers. This is the second observation. Specific attitudes spring from the interplay of family and societal teachings with personal experiences.

Considering "attitudes" to mean "predispositions to act" it is clear that the specific actions of family and friends are the earliest attitudinal conditioners. How a dad behaves when he gets a parking ticket or jury duty influences his son far more than parental preachings on the subject. In general, children learn a little from what they are taught and a lot from the examples they see. Consequently the actions and attitudes of law enforcement people themselves probably constitute the greatest single cultural influence on public attitudes toward law enforcement.

Geoffrey Gorer's fascinating study of public attitudes toward police in England[2] showed how public attitudes were drastically changed by a major overhaul in the patterns of law enforcement. When Sir Robert Peel revamped the London police system, he instigated such changes as crime prevention programs, distinctive uniforms, constant duty, and selection by merit. When incorporated into public awareness, these new methods turned the role of policemen from that of political riders and ill-trained thugs to that of national heroes. Today a British bobby is known and respected around the

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world. The formerly resentful British public, when polled by Gorer recently, overwhelmingly (75 per cent) reported they had no major criticism of the force. Only 5 per cent (mostly from the lower working class) were outright hostile.

Good law enforcement, then, tends to encourage favorable attitudes and bad law enforcement the opposite. But law enforcement is a vague term, and most people would actually be unable to define it if asked. It is the law enforcement *officers* who mold public attitudes, for when people think of "the law" they tend to think of the officers they know in their own town, county and state.

The law enforcement officer holds a unique psychological position in the community. He is in effect a microcosm of all the public attitudes toward law enforcement because the source of his power is the yielded individual power of each citizen in his jurisdiction. This is why a "cop-killer" is hunted like a mad dog. For in killing one man, he has in effect killed all men. The psychological influence of an officer is therefore quite powerful. And because of this there are certain aspects of police work which can quickly result in strongly negative public attitudes if mishandled.

For one thing, police are law breakers. Except for the criminal populace they break more laws than anyone else. They do this in the line of duty, of course, but nevertheless they can drive faster than the speed limit, shoot people, race thru red lights, etc. These extra-legal privileges are part of the special appeal of police work. Adding up the low pay, long hours and danger, it is little enough for policemen to get some thrills the rest of the people don't share. But if these working privileges are openly flaunted the public attitude is that you can't tell a cop from a crook without a uniform.

Closely related to this is the violent dislike expressed toward officers who go in for grandstanding on the job. Most private citizens—at least the males—are half envious, half resentful of the exciting, rough life of the police officer. The fact that women are especially admiring of police does little to make the private citizen feel more virile. Consequently a wise police officer plays down his potential role as a story book hero.

There is one more significant variable influencing attitudes—fictional stereotypes of police. The American public is fascinated by the topic of crime and punishment. Any newsstand displays a fantastic number of books and magazines devoted to it. The works range from Dick Tracy and crime "comics" through *True Detective* and *Police Gazette* to the Erle Stanley Gardner novels and reprints by Edgar Allen Poe. Next to love and sex, crime and cops are the hottest topics for reader appeal. Love and the law combined is a guaranteed best seller as several publishers have found!

That the ordinary officer is not a six-foot, red-haired muscle man bursting with virility as he does routine jobs of rescuing half naked damsels while knocking in the teeth of an armed hoodlum, matters little to the reading public. This is near enough the truth to give the reader a satisfying emotional kick (which partly makes up for his leading a humdrum, law-abiding life!)

Such stereotypes, and this is one of the classics, are important in the thinking of the American public. One small town police chief recently told the author, "We've had to take up the jargon of TV shows because if we don't say things like 'm.o.' and 'r. and i.' people complain we don't know our job." One has only to think of some of the other types such as the "dumb Irish flatfoot" or the "crusty, but heart-of-gold police chief" to realize some of the false preconceptions held by naive but avid readers, who doubtless think they really understand the workings of a police department.

The problem of attitude formation is a complex one. The factors mentioned in this article are pertinent. Undoubtedly there are many others. Because of the tremendous implications for crime prevention programs of understanding this problem, there is a great need for more intensive and detailed psychological research to determine the most crucial of these factors. Such research offers a variety of topics which could be best pursued by interdisciplinary work of social psychologists and research minded police personnel.

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Steps Toward Good Public Relations

By Inspector Paul H. Ashenhust

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Inspector Ashenhust began his police career August 1, 1920, with the Dallas Police Department. Prior to promotion to the rank of Inspector, he was Administrative Assistant to the Chief of Police. In addition to his other duties, he is Chairman of the Public Relations Committee of the Texas Police Association, Associate Editor of the* TEXAS POLICE JOURNAL, *and Secretary-Treasurer of the FBI National Academy Associates of Texas. He is the author of numerous articles on various phases of police service, and the book,* POLICE AND THE PEOPLE, *recently released by Charles C Thomas, Publisher. This is the third in a series of articles written by Inspector Ashenhust for* POLICE *on the subject of Police Public Relations.*

IN setting up the factors in a previous article which determine the attitude which the citizenship will have toward your department, we listed four main points. We have discussed the first two in general terms. We have attempted to show that for good public relations you must have: (1) good press relations, and (2) satisfactory contacts with the individual citizen.

The third point, which we know from experience has to do with the public feeling about all police, is one over which we have a little less opportunity for control than the first two. It is difficult to prevent a small segment, an irresponsible minority, from making unfavorable remarks about the police. The job is to reduce this group to the smallest percentage possible while we strive to gain the goodwill of the majority, making them feel so kindly disposed toward us that they, too, will talk. Their conversation will be favorable.

There is one of the original four points left. How are we going to get the support of the citizen who has no personal contact with us?

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Who has not heard of the Keystone Cop who painted the police officer as a ludicrous clown? And who is not familiar with the private eye, the inquisitive newspaper reporter and the district attorney, all of whom in print and on the air out-Sherlock the great Holmes himself?

Many of our citizens have a deep-seated feeling that the police officer is all of the things depicted by the unfavorable cartoons, movies, and television shows. Since many of the misconceptions about the police are planted in the minds of the people by radio and television shows, magazine articles, moving pictures and funny papers, we must make an effort to reach this same audience.

From time to time a good picture reaches the screens of our movie houses. One example is the RKO-Pathe prize-winning short—*Devil Take Us*, released in the summer of 1955. Chief I. B. Bruce, President of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, distributed a special letter to members regarding this film. He urged that they see that it was booked in local theatres, assist the theatres in publicizing the showings, and notify all local safety groups when the picture would be shown.

This is a positive step in police public relations. As individual police officers we can support the good pictures, commend our theatre managers for showing them and likewise voice our disapproval when pictures are shown which cast the police officer in a negative light. Through our professional organizations and our police journals published we can support good moving pictures and spearhead a movement designed to prevent the showing of films portraying officers as crooks, simpletons, and clowns.

State and national police organizations can do much to change the types of movies, radio and TV shows and comic strips if they will make the effort. United actions will bring about changes favorable to the police.

Thirty-five years ago a young ex-soldier secured a job on the police force. Shortly thereafter on business at a large utility office he encountered a former classmate. Her face showed dismay and unbelief, for she had considered him as one of those most likely to succeed . . . and here he was . . . on the police force!

"Why didn't you come to see some of your friends when you got back from the service?" she queried earnestly. "Some of us could have helped you get a job."

This young lady was not alone in her ideas about the police force. Most business and professional men at that time looked upon the man on the force as one unable to get or hold a good job. They thought he was a policeman because that was the best he could do. They considered the police job at the bottom of the list.

To some extent this belief still persists, as witness the statement made by a man whose son made an application for a job in a police department recently. "Frankly, I oppose his taking this job. I have tried to talk him out of it. He has the ability to do much better, but he has this idea that he wants to be a policeman. I had hoped when he returned from college that he would get into something more suitable. I am not worrying about him making good; I just feel he is wasting his education!" Efforts of police leaders, police associations and editors of police magazines must be directed toward eradicating this misconception in the minds of too many of our people.

Thousands of our citizens have

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never called the police and, also, many thousands of others have had no personal contact with an officer or with the departments. They do, however, see the police officer. Many of them see one or more officers regularly every day. They notice these men. They see patrolmen in squad cars, traffic officers on corners, motorcycle officers writing tickets, or carrying out other duties. The uniform and the degree of alertness of the wearer make an impression on thousands of citizens, favorable or unfavorable. By observation of one or two officers, many citizens judge the effectiveness of the entire department.

If a citizen drives his car downtown in the morning traffic and something causes traffic congestion which delays him, if only for a few seconds, he becomes exasperated. He is delayed in reaching work . . . he is not in a happy frame of mind. When he reaches a busy corner and sees the traffic officer talking to someone, his back toward the intersection, he is convinced without further evidence that the officer is not working at his job. Should he that evening pass a patrol car in which an officer is riding with his cap off, or slumped down in his seat, or giving any indication that he is not alert to his surroundings, that too will make an impression on him. Perhaps this citizen is very fair, not given to prejudice, and has no reason to think unfavorably of the police. These unfavorable impressions probably may be very slight, but when a week later he again sees evidence that the police are not out working as he thinks they should, his impression that the police are loafing on the job will be strengthened. When this observer is multiplied by thousands, respect for the police is damaged.

A citizen who has received a traffic ticket, or for some reason is inclined to dislike the officer, does not need to see irregularities, or evidence of lack of training or interest on the part of the officer but one time, to decide that the force is made up of a group of misfits.

When two or more officers on duty stop to chat, or where two or more patrol cars are observed standing in front of a cafe, the citizen often—without any knowledge of the situation—believes the officers are wasting time. Should he observe an officer reading a newspaper in a cafe or drug store he is indignant.

All officers of a police department must be aware of the necessity for keeping alert and busy throughout their tour of duty. A business man reads in his morning newspaper that the police force is undermanned and unable to cope with crime and handle traffic. The solution, according to the newspaper, is to raise taxes and hire more officers. On his way to work that morning he observes three motorcycle men pulled up along side each other, chatting. Downtown he sees a traffic officer talking to a woman and giving little attention to the passing automobiles. This citizen believes, and with good reason, that the local department is loosely run and not making use of the officers available. He may be found in the forefront of those fighting salary raises, increased man power and a higher budget for the department. Very likely just a few such instances will cause him to join those who demand a new Chief. The public must be shown by positive action that a police officer is a worker. Too many of our people believe that a policeman works very little.

There is another important thing which the police administrator would do well to bear in mind. Regardless of the overall efficiency of the department, he is very likely to find that within the organization a few discomfited officers are out of step with his program. These are the Benedict Arnolds of the police public relations program.

The affected men are likely to be veterans, rather than recruits. Often they bear a grudge against the Chief of Police because of some fancied wrong which occurred in the past. At other times they may be men who have received disciplinary punishment. Or again, and probably most often, we find that officers who had been especially close to a former Chief, or who had held high rank or a preferred assignment under a preceding administration, are personally hostile to the Chief of Police.

Unfortunately the tenure of office of the vast majority of our Police Chiefs is uncertain. Unlike the District Attorney, or the Judge, or the Mayor, he does not hold office for any stated length of time. He is appointed, not elected. Because of this, he may be unseated by politics at any time.

So, he is faced by opposition from members of other political parties, often supported in their constant sniping by one or more newspapers. When you add the politics from outside the City Hall to the character assassins within the department, and then take into account the criminal element, particularly the gamblers, you find that there may be a large group consistently working to unseat the Chief. In so doing, their method of attack embraces constant complaints against the members of the department.

Therefore, even though the object is to discredit the Mayor or get a new Chief, much of the strategy involves a slanderous attack upon police officers who are ably performing their duty. Under such circumstances, it is of the utmost importance that an outstanding public relations program be in force. ★★★

POLYGRAPH
and INTERROGATION

To establish and maintain a standard of ethics and professional qualifications

Edited by ROBERT D. STEEL

Stress vs. Empathy Interview Techniques

By J. S. Curtis

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of three articles by Mr. Curtis dealing with two basic types of interrogation techniques. The first article appeared in the September-October issue of* POLICE, *and the third and final article will be published in the January-February issue.*

STAGES OF STRESS

THE interrogator in a Stress interview uses fear, humiliation, anger, frustration and anxiety as his tools. He tries to cause these emotional responses in his subject. He realizes that strong, repeated emotions can have a violent effect on the brain and higher nervous system. His objective is to destroy the subject's judgment, confuse his intellect, break his resistance and cause him to be submissive, responsive and pliable. The normal person's first reaction to any attack on his personality is resistance. It may be aggressive resistance as in types "A" and "B" or it may be passive resistance as in types "C" and "D."

We find that there are three parts to the Stress interview pattern. First, there will be the subject's normal attempts to resist attack. Second, will be a middle period of disrupted nervous stability. Third comes the period of total brain black-out. It is in the second or middle period of disrupted nervous stability that confession is obtained.

THE MIDDLE PERIOD OF STRESS

Since this middle period of stress is the most important to the interviewer let us examine in detail the effects of stress on the subject during this stage. The mental and nervous state of the subject can be compared to an imaginary spotlight shining on the brain. During normal consciousness the spotlight is a bright red. As resistance breaks down and the normal responses become disrupted this red spotlight suddenly snaps off and a blue light snaps on. A state of hysterical hypnosis begins. Judgment is beginning to be suspended and mental confusion has started to develop. The conscious brain is now in a state of "waking-sleep."

The effect is similar to any ordinary hypnosis in which the conscious mind is put out of commission and the subconscious or inner mind takes over. In hypnosis the conscious mind is lulled to sleep, in the Stress interview the conscious mind is paralyzed by strong inner conflicts and emotions.

The subject is now submissive to the interviewer and he will respond to suggestion very much like any hypnotized person. It is during this state that the mind is ransacked by the interviewer for its hidden secrets.

As stress is continued the blue light deepens and becomes darker. The intellect is becoming more paralyzed. Judgment is completely gone. The mind's suggestibility increases. Memory is washed clean of conditioned behavior responses.

Suddenly the point of complete inhibition occurs. The mind's protective mechanism automatically sounds an alarm, the blue light snaps off and there is nothing but blackness. The mind has taken action to prevent personality destruction; it has shut off all contact with the world; it now receives no stimulus and gives no responses. When the mind is restored to consciousness it may be found that the personality has been temporarily or permanently injured.

Prior to the mental black-out, during the time of disturbed reactions (the blue spotlight period), there are three recognizable stages of mental activity.

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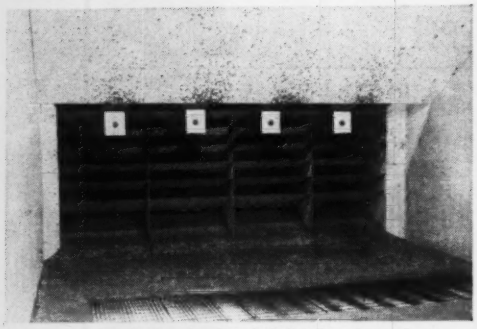

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Phase I

The first stage is that of equal reflex-response. The effect is similar to exhaustion or fatigue. The resistance of the mind has snapped and a stupor sets in, a lethargic condition in which the subject feels the same amount of reaction to any stimulus. For example, the excitement of receiving a ten thousand dollar legacy would be no greater than if it were a dime. This limited reflex-response causes an impairment of judgment. The subject being submissive and his judgment dampened, may easily give in to the interviewer's probing questions.

Phase II

If emotional pressures are continued, the subject will move to the second stage of abnormal behavior. In this phase, new behavior habits begin to show. The malefactor now will respond to weak stimuli better than to strong stimuli. The reason for this is that the stronger stimuli are bringing on the brain's protective action of fear-paralysis, while the weaker ones still produce a positive response.

The subject's judgment was knocked out in the first stage and now in the second stage we see conditioned-behavior habits are starting to be reversed.

In this state, the person's behavior seems quite irrational, not only to the uninformed observer but to the subject himself. If the interrogator shouts an order telling the subject to "sit down!" the subject may want to obey but he cannot make his muscles respond and he remains standing. If the interviewer repeats the command in a quiet voice the subject obeys and quickly sits down.

Phase III

In the third stage a new reaction occurs. Suddenly the behavior patterns of the malefactor are turned upside down. A reversal of habits takes place. Now all former positive reactions are negative and vice versa. When this occurs, the subject may suddenly become fond of his interrogator whom he has hated up to this point. If he liked coffee and hated tea he will now like tea and hate coffee. Everything is reversed. If he has refused to confess up to this time he will now want to confess.

This reversed-response can occasionally be noted in situations outside of the interview. An example occurred recently on a television quiz show. A pretty girl from below the Mason-Dixon line was asked to identify a tune played by the orchestra. The band played a few stirring strains of "Dixie." The southern belle's eyes lighted up. Triumphantly she cried out, "I know, I know —Yankee Doodle!" The nervous strain of being on the program had brought her momentarily to the state of reversed-response.

All four basic personality types described earlier can be forced by emotional stress through all the phases of nervous disruption from broken resistance to complete brain black-out. It is quite apparent that theoretically, confession can always be attained when the state of reversed-response is reached, if not before.

FOUR METHODS OF CAUSING STRESS

Pavlov found there were four fundamental methods of causing stress in a subject. With an understanding of these fundamentals the interrogator can then invent an unlimited number of varieties.

First there is the shock effect of increasing the strength of stimuli on the subject. Shouting at the malefactor, banging the interview desk, forcibly making the subject stand up or sit down. Shouting and loud, angry questioning can have considerable effect on the subject's nervous system.

In type "A" and type "D" this is particularly true. Mental confusion and a breakdown of resistance can be accomplished by loud, unexpected noise, a slap or any other exaggerated and excessive direct attack on the subject's nervous system.

The second method of causing strong emotional upset in the subject is more of a challenge to the ingenuity of the interviewer. It is based on the delay of expected stimulus.

Anxiety, worry and fear can be stimulated by leading the subject to believe something terrible is going to happen and then leaving him suspended on the thin cobweb of time, waiting for the event to be realized—anxiety and fear build up in the imagination of the subject waiting for an expected event to happen. Such nightmares of waiting can do far more emotional damage than the event itself.

The third method of causing stress is based on confusing the subject by alternating positive and negative actions. Mental confusion is caused, and fear results, because the interviewer's actions appear illogical. The interviewer may ask an unimportant question in a kindly

manner. The subject answers and the interviewer, no matter what the answer is, pretends to be very angry. He grabs the suspect bodily from his chair and shouts loudly, "Don't you lie to me!" He may at the same time slap the man's face. Immediately following this the interrogator's mood changes, he relaxes and smiles. He returns to soft spoken, quiet questions.

If this alternating of attitudes is continued with the subject, he will soon become mentally confused and disoriented. He will be frightened because he cannot understand what is happening and because he doesn't know what will happen next. Alternating questions by two interviewers, one friendly and one angry, can also cause this type of emotional stress.

The fourth method of causing emotional breakdown is to tamper with the subject's physical condition. Not allowing the subject food or water for long periods, preventing urinary relief, causing exhaustion with strong unshaded lights in his eyes, or making him stand while being questioned for several hours are all means of causing stress through weakening the physical body. Drugs are also used to cause emotional stress and physical torture. Narcotics can create a dependency need; other depressives and stimulants cause mental confusion and physical debilitation.

The moment of surrender in any subject may be very sudden and against the subject's will. It may come after an unexpected accusation, a shock, a humiliation that particularly hurts: a slap, etc. This sudden change from defiance to submission is an unconscious action resulting from inner conflict. Mentally the subject tells himself to resist but he has a deep inner desire to give in and end the torment. This inner conflict causes nervous confusion and sudden emotional collapse.

CONCLUSION

The Stress method of interview is successful in forcing criminal admissions. It is also, however, a method which most likely will cause the subject to make a *false confession*. There is also, always present, a very real *danger* of permanent injury to the subject's mind and personality. I believe the thoughtful interviewer will use the Empathy approach exclusively.

THE EMPATHY INTERVIEW

When an interviewer questions another human being regarding a criminal situation there are important moral and philosophic considerations which he must settle with his own conscience. One problem which has always existed is that of choosing the method for obtaining a confession.

The search has always been for a means of interview which obtains a full confession but does not violate the personality of either the subject or interviewer. The Empathy method of interview meets this need.

An Empathy interview, unlike the Stress method, does not create new and more serious psychological problems for the subject. It avoids the dangers of a major traumatic experience and leaves the way open for future rehabilitation. The Empathy approach is of major importance because over 80 per cent of the cases handled by law enforcement officers do not deal with professional criminals but rather with disturbed people who are in most respects normal citizens. It has also been found that the Empathy interview avoids the dangers of a false confession.

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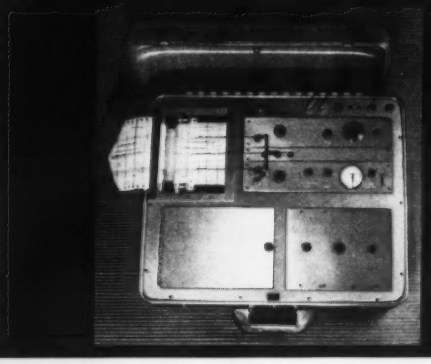

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The Empathy Interview is a technique perfected in recent years by psychiatrists to persuade patients to reveal inner thoughts. The interviewer attempts to look at the situation from the subject's viewpoint. He tries to understand how the subject thinks and feels. He tries to enter into the subject's mind and look at life through the subject's eyes.

This can only be accomplished if a bond of understanding can be established between the interrogator and the malefactor. Before this understanding can develop there must be a strong belief-relationship. The interviewer must gain the subject's confidence.

The following interview-plan outlines the possible steps in a theoretical interview situation. The steps are arranged in the order proven most effective. However, all of them may not be required in the average interview.

The Empathy technique works very successfully for some interviewers. There are others who will find they can get better results with a different approach. It is not intended to be a one-best method but is offered here as an example of a technique we have found effective.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Watch for the third in this series of three articles by Mr. Curtis in the January-February issue of POLICE. ★★★

What Can We Do About Juvenile Delinquency?

By Anthony S. Kuharich

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two articles by Mr. Kuharich. The author represents a substantial school of thought concerning the role of police administration in the project of crime and delinquency prevention which in the individual behavior case would limit police activity to the functions of discovery and referral. There is also a substantial segment of opinion which holds that the police are in a strategic position to initiate and follow through with a diagnostic and treatment program which would bring into play appropriate community resources in a clinical team approach to the problem. This point of view is expressed in an article,* THE JUVENILE POLICE OFFICER, *by Lieutenant Bernard Berkowitz, formerly of the New York City Police Department, which appeared in the September-October issue of* POLICE. *The* JOURNAL *invites further discussion concerning this important subject.*

CONSIDERABLE disagreement exists among police officers concerning their role and functions as juvenile officers. Studies made of various juvenile police units reveal that juvenile officers are assigned a variety of duties which perhaps should not be performed by the special police youth bureau. Activities such as guarding school crossings, searching for missing persons, issuing bicycle licenses, working with neighborhood gangs, sponsorship and administration of various recreational programs, serving as probation officers, providing casework services and organizing neighborhood councils are not generally regarded as functions of the juvenile unit but as responsibilities of other community agencies.

The responsibility of the police department is to maintain order and enforce the law; to detect and apprehend the offender. Too often, juvenile officers are not professionally trained probation officers or recreation leaders. However, they are in a strategic position to be on the alert for sore spots in the community, breeding places of crime, and for individuals who contribute to the delinquency of children by selling liquor, drugs and obscene literature to them. Through effective police work, individuals who encourage juveniles to steal and who provide a ready market for the stolen goods, must be eliminated from the community. Specialized juvenile police officers must patrol public places and supervise commercial recreation. This should not be routine patrol by uniformed officers.

Making a thorough and complete investigation in each case involving delinquent youngsters is an important function of juvenile police officers. They should be good investigators and skilled interviewers. They should provide the court with the evidence, legal facts and details of the offenses committed by delinquent children so that, when petitions are filed, such petitions will be supported by appropriate factual evidence and, if not, the youngsters should not be adjudicated by the juvenile court.

When the volume of delinquency increases the police are the first to feel its effects. Usually they are the first contact with youngsters who get into trouble. The method used by police officers in handling these children during initial contacts may have a lasting effect on their lives and may very well determine whether they will respect community authority and the law. Juvenile officers dealing with children in trouble should refrain from threatening or cursing them and from using any unnecessary physical force. These obsolete tactics help to destroy respect for the police by the youngsters and may prove detrimental to their personalities. Juvenile specialists must be patient and tactful, but also forceful and persistent.

Statistics indicate that two and one-half (2½) times more youngsters come to the attention of the local police than are brought before the juvenile courts. Therefore, the juvenile officer must decide who will be released; who will be handled by the police; who will be referred to the community agencies; and who will be turned over to the juvenile court. To screen each case properly and recognize the youngster's problems, juvenile police officers require special training and skills. They must know community resources and make immediate referrals to appropriate agencies for treatment, thus preventing further juvenile violations.

Some juvenile police units have undertaken the supervision of youngsters picked up by them on an unofficial basis by having them report periodically to the juvenile bureau for interviews, advice and reprimands concerning their conduct. In some instances these officers make weekly or monthly visits to the children's homes and hold conferences with the parents. In a few jurisdictions they have developed programs of continuous supervision in an attempt to provide casework treatment services. The chief reason for this is that the communities have failed to provide adequate facilities to meet the needs of these youngsters. As a result, the burden of treating delinquents falls on the police, despite the fact that it is not generally regarded as a police function or responsibility and that the police officers are not usually trained or qualified to provide treatment services for these youngsters.

The juvenile police bureau is in a strategic position in the community to stimulate and exert pressure on certain influential and prominent groups to provide adequate youth services with trained staffs and dynamic programs

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equipped to deal with the unmet needs of delinquent children. This is a community responsibility.

In some jurisdictions lacking community resources and in others where existing recreational agencies have failed to meet the leisure time needs of all children, juvenile police units organized their own recreational programs by sponsoring boys' clubs, summer camps, scout troops, junior police and by assigning police officers to teach boxing, wrestling and judo to youth classes. These police departments believe they have a positive program for prevention of delinquency. Those favoring such programs point out that these contacts promote good will between the police and children engaged in these activities. They argue that these youngsters who participate in these programs will develop an appreciation for law enforcement officers and will help to offset criticism leveled at the police. They also maintain that this is an important public relations function of the police. They admit duplication of activity but insist that this stimulates the youh service agencies to develop dynamic programs to meet the needs of all children.

Police departments and individual police officers participating in these activities may be contributing to delinquency prevention. However, the question arises: IS THIS A POLICE FUNCTION? The police usually do not have trained recreational specialists, the facilities, nor the money to direct such activities. These programs could be more efficiently administered by appropriate community agencies, and the delinquency prevention division of the police department should stimulate the community to provide these youth services and meet these needs.

In some cases, police juvenile officers are in a unique position to "straighten out" an individual without referring him to the juvenile court or to other community agencies and without any supervision by the police. This is done when the children are brought to the youth bureau and is commonly referred to as "station adjustment."

The police can be an efficient positive force in the community to help reduce juvenile crime. However, they should not be expected to do the job alone. An increasing number of police departments are sincerely becoming concerned with the delinquency problems and are taking intelligent steps to establish juvenile police bureaus with appropriate status in the department. Officers are selected who possess academic experience and the personal qualifications and qualities needed to deal adequately with children in trouble. These officers then receive specialized training so that they can efficiently perform the appropriate functions of the juvenile police unit.

It is generally agreed that juvenile delinquency is a complex problem, not easily solved. If our communities are sincerely concerned with the juvenile problem they will not rely on any single agency to provide the resources to combat delinquency. Communities must be concerned with all children—normal youngsters, those with behavior problems, and those already delinquent. In order to meet the needs of all children, our social institutions—the family, the school, the church, public health facilities, recreational activities, etc.—must be strengthened. Children with behavior problems must be located early and referred to clinical services staffed with professional workers.

Youngsters who commit delinquent acts come into contact with the police, the detention facilities, probation officers, juvenile courts, and the training schools. It is the major responsibility of these authoritative agencies to understand the complex factors contributing to their antisocial conduct and to improve their services accordingly. They must be concerned not only with the symptoms or delinquent acts themselves. Juvenile delinquents can best be rehabilitated if these public official agencies are staffed with professionally trained individuals capable of developing new and dynamic programs. Such programs must be designed to adequately deal with children having a variety of different traits and problems. These authoritative agencies must cooperate with all public and private agencies and provide the leadership needed in the community for the development of additional services to meet the needs of all youth. Only with such an approach will the needs of delinquent children be intelligently met and the delinquency problem reduced. ★★★

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STATISTICS FOR POLICE EFFICIENCY

Canadian Police Statistics

By Prof. John I. Griffin

STATISTICAL data relating to the activities of police departments and the volume of crime in Canada reflect the special characteristics of both the police system and the organization of statistical reporting in that country. Police forces operating in Canada consist of three types: the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the Provincial Police Forces and the Municipal Police. The R.C.M.P. is the Federal Force, which, in addition to its duties throughout the entire country, performs police duties in the rural areas of all the Provinces except Ontario and Quebec. In a number of municipalities, cities and towns, it performs police duties by agreements which provide for payment for its services as in the agreements with the several Provinces. In Ontario and Quebec there are Provincial police forces. The municipal police departments are maintained by local taxpayers and have jurisdiction limited to the municipality concerned.

In Canada, unlike the United States, there is a central statistical department called the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. This agency publishes annually three reports: Police Statistics, Statistics of Criminal and Other Offences, and Juvenile Delinquents. In a sense, therefore, police, court, and penal statistics are centralized in one statistical agency. The most convenient summary presentation of these data for the general reader is to be found in the annual volume entitled *Canada Year Books*, in which a chapter is devoted to Crime and Delinquency.

POLICE STATISTICS

The annual report on Police Statistics relates in its first part to the statistics of municipal police and in the second part to statistics of the R.C.M.P., the Ontario Provincial Police, and the railway police. In both parts the reported information is shown under eight headings: police personnel and vehicles, offences known to police, offences cleared, persons arrested and summoned, persons prosecuted, theft and recovery of motor vehicles and bicycles, and value of other stolen and recovered property, traffic and other accidents, and identification of persons and other services. In respect to the statistics of municipal police, the reports are limited to urban centers, district municipalities and townships of 4,000 population or more. Police strength in the urban centers and the strength per 1,000 population in each of the ten Provinces of Canada, and in the largest city of each Province are shown in Table I.

The total population in the urban centers for which police statistics were reported was 8,334,000. Reports were received from 245 incorporated urban centers, 16 district municipalities, 14 townships, and one unorganized district, all having 4,000 population and over. These reports are received from urban centers representing over 90 per cent of the population of all urban centers in Canada. In 1956 only one police officer was killed by criminal action and 12 were killed accidently in Canada.

Data in respect to the police forces other than municipal police do not include information on the Quebec Provincial Police. In 1956 the R.C.M.P. had a strength of 4,776, the Ontario Provincial Police a strength of 1,564, and there were 547 police employed by the Canadian Pacific Railway, and 530 by the Canadian National Railways.

OFFENSES KNOWN AND CLEARED

Data on criminal activity are reported in terms of "offences known to police," which represent situations in which investigation proves that an offence or attempt has been committed. Cases are regarded as cleared if an offender is brought before the Court or the identity of the offender is known to the police. Offences are classified into 12 categories of crimes,

TABLE I

POLICE STRENGTH IN CANADA, 1956
URBAN CENTERS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER

Province	*Number of Police*	*Ratio per 1,000 Population*	*Largest City*	*Number of Police*	*Ratio per 1,000 Population*
Newfoundland	199	1.9	St. John's	162	2.8
Quebec	4,128	1.6	Montreal	2,445	2.2
New Brunswick	224	1.5	Saint John	97	1.9
Ontario	4,354	1.4	Toronto	1,296	2.0
Manitoba	513	1.4	Winnipeg	399	1.6
Alberta	667	1.4	Edmonton	313	1.4
British Columbia	1,254	1.3	Vancouver	695	1.9
Saskatchewan	304	1.2	Regina	118	1.3
Nova Scotia	315	1.2	Halifax	156	1.7
Prince Edward Isl.	25	1.1	Charlottetown	18	1.1
Canada	11,983	1.4		5,699	2.0

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

TABLE II

OFFENCES KNOWN TO POLICE

Location	Murder	Murder Attempt	Manslaughter	Assault That Causes Bodily Harm	Indecent Assault on Male	Indecent Assault on Female	Assault on Police	Rape	Rape Attempt	Robbery	Breaking and Entering	Theft
GRAND TOTAL ...	78	37	49	3,782	191	939	642	178	70	1,915	24,566	92,644
Newfoundland	1	–	–	61	–	11	16	–	–	3	174	366
Prince Edward Island	–	–	–	3	–	1	3	–	–	–	14	46
Nova Scotia	2	2	1	86	11	27	70	4	2	46	728	3,016
New Brunswick	1	–	–	72	3	8	22	–	–	5	260	726
Quebec	22	15	11	532	74	235	72	33	22	755	6,005	19,088
Ontario	30	8	10	1,938	71	329	301	56	22	542	8,953	33,373
Manitoba	6	2	–	248	2	63	11	12	5	52	1,233	5,442
Saskatchewan	2	1	–	103	3	53	25	7	5	40	604	3,654
Alberta	3	3	–	269	19	138	50	16	2	124	2,069	9,185
British Columbia ...	11	6	27	470	8	74	72	48	12	348	4,526	17,748

Location	Traffic				Parking	Other			
	Total	Criminal Code	Provincial Highway Traffic Act	Municipal By-laws	P.H.T.A. and Municipal By-laws	Criminal Code	Federal Statutes	Provincial Acts	Municipal By-laws
GRAND TOTAL ...	558,622	8,684	291,540	258,398	1,967,953	78,386	17,978	84,488	46,813
Newfoundland	1,957	27	1,919	11	14,324	795	81	1,609	7
Prince Edward Island	208	21	73	114	2,868	254	–	1	851
Nova Scotia	4,372	133	4,197	42	31,503	2,413	19	6,378	206
New Brunswick	4,306	206	2,480	1,620	10,685	938	158	4,616	677
Quebec	144,750	1,416	15,127	128,207	400,147	6,449	8,933	1,570	21,050
Ontario	250,841	4,254	197,982	48,605	841,712	22,578	3,033	38,903	14,212
Manitoba	19,770	144	13,291	6,335	121,338	3,308	113	732	544
Saskatchewan	9,336	237	3,926	5,173	89,525	2,850	459	2,160	3,058
Alberta	59,421	1,207	15,926	42,288	289,461	26,116	774	8,221	1,381
British Columbia ...	63,661	1,039	36,619	26,003	166,390	12,685	4,408	20,298	4,827

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

traffic offences, parking violations, and four other categories of offences. Table II is reproduced from the 1956 Report on Police Statistics and is, like all reports of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, in English and French.

Clearance rates for some of the major categories of offences are: murder 68 per cent, assault that causes bodily harm 71 per cent, rape 73 per cent, robbery 57 per cent, and theft 27 per cent. The report relating to offences known and cleared by the R.C.M.P., as contrasted with the data relating to municipal police shown in Table II, indicate the following number of offences and clearance rates: 34 cases of murder 88 per cent cleared; 814 cases of assault that causes bodily harm 90 per cent cleared; 80 cases of rape 92 per cent cleared; 171 cases of robbery 70 per cent cleared, and 11,431 cases of theft 49 per cent cleared.

In 1956 a total of 17,662 automobiles were stolen in the areas under the jurisdiction of municipal police, and of these 98 per cent were recovered. In the same year 29,701 bicycles were reported as stolen of which 80 per cent were recovered.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS

The 1956 report on Police Statistics was the 37th in a series which commenced in 1920. The 1955 report on Statistics of Criminal and Other Offences was the 80th in a series of such statistics. This latter report is concerned with the characteristics of persons charged with indictable offences and the results of proceedings against these persons. In addition, the report presents data on court proceedings, appeals, clemency and commutations, executions, and statistics on penal institutions and training schools. Of the persons charged with indictable offences in Canada in 1955, 87 per cent were convicted. Of the total of 28,273 persons convicted, 47 per cent were punished by confinement in an institution, 33 per cent were fined, and 19 per cent received suspended sentences. An interesting tabulation of educational status and type of offence for persons convicted is shown in Table III. What may be concluded about the effects of education on the type of offence committed?

Detailed information is presented in respect to the characteristics of convicted persons. This includes age

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and sex, marital status, education, occupation, employment status, and country of birth, as well as religious denomination. The latter breakdown parallels the religious denomination tabulations regularly published in the Canadian Census of Population. These data provide a rich field for sociological interpretation.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS CONVICTED, BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS AND TYPE OF OFFENCE: INDICTABLE OFFENCES, 1955

Type of offence	*Superior education*	*Secondary of High School*	*Elementary*	*Illiterate*
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Offences against the person	17.1	14.5	18.7	19.8
Offences against property with violence	6.8	15.9	17.6	14.5
Offences against property without violence	33.3	41.0	37.7	41.3
Wilful and forbidden acts in respect of certain property	0.5	1.6	1.9	2.4
Offences against currency, forgery and uttering	3.9	3.3	2.2	1.4
Reckless, impaired and drunken driving	27.1	13.3	12.0	12.1
Various other offences	11.3	10.4	9.9	8.5

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

AT RANDOM . . .

Statistical Progress

At the Rome meeting of the International Police Commission, they were discussing sex crimes. One by one delegates from the major Western powers reeled off their grisly statistics. Finally the Burmese delegate diffidently climbed to the rostrum. "I must apologize to the assembly," he said, "for I have no statistics on this subject. We are a backward nation and have no sex crimes. But as our civilization catches up with those of the distinguished delegates who have been speaking I hope we may do better. Next year I will try to bring some good statistics on this matter." (Ian Fleming in the London *Sunday Times.*)

Loops and Whorls

A weekly news magazine sought to demonstrate that its readers greatly exceeded its circulation. After showing its circulation figures, the magazine stated: "And each of these subscribers represents 3.26 cover-to-cover readers according to former Deputy Police Commissioner ....., who counted and identified 216,948 fingerprints on copies his operatives had picked up at random from subscribers' homes in seven different cities or towns." (Croxton and Crowden: *Applied General Statistics.*) ★★★

PROFESSOR WILLIAM DIENSTEIN, EDITOR

Robert L. Donigan: CHEMICAL TESTS AND THE LAW. Legal Aspects of and Constitutional Issues Involved in Chemical Tests to Determine Alcohol Influence, pp. 257. Evanston, Illinois, The Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1957.

A whole library could be filled with the literature that has been published during the last 25 years on the legal, chemical and medical aspects of alcohol intoxication and its relationship to the mounting number of serious highway accidents. When such a situation exists in any field of endeavor, the time ultimately becomes ripe for an evaluation and summation of the highly controversial issues.

This, undoubtedly, is the most complete, authoritative and up-to-date book of its kind in the English literature. It is written by Mr. Donigan, counsel for The Traffic Institute of Northwestern University and a member of the Committee on Tests for Intoxication of the National Safety Council. He is the foremost authority in this country on legal problems pertaining to chemical testing.

Since more than one out of every five drivers in fatal motor vehicle collisions had been drinking, successful prosecution and conviction of such drivers is the most effective deterrent to this problem. However, there are no cases harder to try in court than those concerning drunken driving with all the fabricated defenses, true excuses, constitutional provisions, human rights, etc., that must be weighed and considered.

The chemical determination of alcohol in the blood, urine, saliva or breath provide the true answer, because they alone eliminate objective observations which very often may be erroneous.

Every conceivable legal aspect of chemical testing is discussed in a very concise and lucid manner beginning each time with the historic background of the law and proving it by well chosen, short case histories followed by short summaries.

The author points out, for instance, that no court ever reversed a case on the ground that chemical tests are not valid for the purpose of determining alcoholic influence, or, that the privilege against self incrimination is applicable only to testimonial compulsion—what a person may be compelled to say against himself through his lips or in writing. Obtaining a specimen of blood, urine, saliva or breath, is the obtaining of physical evidence, which is not included within the protective code of the privilege. The driver's consent, however, is absolutely necessary. Still, many courts have permitted the introduction of such a refusal as evidence possibly indicating consciousness of guilt. After all, the chemical evidence is equally important to protect the innocent against unjust charges and conviction.

Address: Professor William Dienstein, 4337 North Moroa Ave., Fresno 4, California.

Other pertinent chapters include: 1) the physician-patient privilege; 2) qualifications of people giving expert testimony; 3) qualifications of those who conduct the tests; 4) techniques in methods of conducting chemical tests, and 5) the interpretation of the results.

Appendix I is an excellent chapter on the toxicological and physiological aspects of alcohol on the human body, written by Dr. Clarence W. Muehlberger, under whom this reviewer had the good fortune to study. Dr. Muehlberger is the toxicologist for the State of Michigan and director of the Michigan Crime Detection Laboratory. He is rated as one of the foremost authorities in the United States in the field of chemical tests to determine alcoholic influence. He was a member of the National Safety Council and the American Medical Association and was a member of the particular committee of the Safety Council when it undertook the responsibility of adopting standards as to the degrees of alcoholic influence.

Appendix II consists of a sample list of questions and answers for presenting testimony of an expert witness, in this case Dr. Muehlberger. The questions are those of the lawyer for defense and the prosecutor.

The planning and organization of the book are unusually well done in that the chapters are complete, yet there is little overlapping between chapters. Without being encyclopedic, coverage of all subjects is obviously the result of much thought and experience. The editor and authors should be congratulated on a superb contribution. The book is a must and can be usefully consulted by lawyers, judges, toxicologists, prosecuting attorneys, and criminalists.

J. J. Bocian, M.D.
Pathologist
Fresno Community Hospital
Fresno, California

Don L. Kooken: ETHICS IN POLICE SERVICE, pp. 58, Springfield, Illinois, Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1957, $3.00.

This monograph is a rearrangement and expansion of an article published in 1947 on the same subject by Professor Kooken.

The code proposed by the author is sufficiently broad to cover the field, yet is specific enough to lead the inquiring reader to arrive at a decision relative to proper action in most police situations. The proposed rules are superior in their practicality to the several creeds which have evolved in recent years. As the author has said, "To adhere to its basic rules would require men of sterling character, men who would command the full respect and confidence of a most exacting public."

Professor Kooken has prepared a rather unorganized and unduly long dissertation on "The Problem" which precedes his "Rules of Official Conduct." It is suggested that the reader skip through the first few pages lest he become satiated before the main course is before him. The code and the discussion which follows will provide the persevering individual with ample food for thought. To advance toward the author's goal, professionalism, it is not necessary to agree, but rather to ponder—then act in accord with the spirit of true professionalism.

It is pointed out in conclusion that professionalization of the police service is necessary in the public interest. However, even though many officers are strictly professional in their conduct others are not. General acceptance is lacking. It is inferred that this essential ingredient will come

about from more reading, more writing, more thinking, more discussion, and more agreement on proper standards.

This volume should be placed in all police libraries, not because it is the final word; but rather because at present it stands as an oasis in a silent desert.

RICHARD SIMON
Deputy Chief
Los Angeles Police Department
Los Angeles, California

V. A. Leonard, Editor: **ACADEMY LECTURES ON LIE DETECTION,** pp. ix-99. Springfield, Illinois, Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1957, $3.75.

Academy Lectures on Lie Detection, compiled and edited by Dr. V. A. Leonard, is a refreshing change from the available literature on a somewhat neglected subject. As indicated in its title, this is a monograph containing the best material presented in the Academy Lecture Series for the year 1956. Each of the contributing authors has drawn from a wealth of valuable experience in presenting a special view, a research result, on one phase of this many faceted subject.

This reviewer soon discovered the underlying theme and characteristic of this collection to be frankness and honesty. The articles as edited will be found to be concise and of broad general interest, and at least to some extent a true revelation of the personality of the authors. Such writers as Dr. John Larson, Captain Robert Borkenstein, Dr. LeMoyne Snyder, Professor William Dienstein, and Professor Homer J. Dana, names recognized throughout the fields of Criminology and Education, contribute their talents to this book. These are but a few of the names, but they are names associated with progress and leadership in a field which is yearly taking on added importance in the realm of science. There are names like Inspector A. E. Riedel, retired, Berkeley (California) Police Department and of the School of Criminology at the University of California at Berkeley, California; Robert J. Beattie, associated with the Federal Government; Captain Charles N. Joseph of the Provost Marshal General's School at Camp Gordon, Georgia, and Captain Clyde V. Dailey, retired, of the Seattle Police Department.

Taking as his subject "Semantics of Question Preparation," Robert J. Beattie conveys an understanding of and experience with the problem. He underlines the reason for the need of complete understanding between subject and examiner as to the true meaning of questions and words.

The future of the instrumental detection of deception is indicated by Professor Homer J. Dana, who is presently engaged in research to perfect the "Emotional Stress Meter," utilizing the Plethysmograph. It is believed that the Plethysmogragh will replace the present method of the pressure cuff in polygraph examinations.

The interrogation aspects of the detection of deception are fully covered by A. E. Riedel in his article, "Interrogation of the Subject," and Clyde V. Dailey in his article, "Interrogation of the Subject After Testing." Both of these men combine their efforts in a thorough coverage in the art of interrogation.

In the article, "The Rights of the Subject in Lie Detection," Professor William Dienstein indicates the need for an understanding of our responsibility towards the persons subjected to polygraph examinations. Legal decisions and implications are used to emphasize and elaborate each point of information. Correlated with the above is Dr. LeMoyne Snyder's presentation, "Question of Ethics." A noted writer, Dr. Snyder speaks directly to the reader in terms that cannot be misinterpreted.

Captain R. F. Borkenstein, Director of the Indiana State Police Laboratory, offers the "Clinical Team Approach." He explains the value of the services of men like Dr. John Larson, an authority on the operation of the polygraph and a leader in the development of the instrument used in detection of deception. Dr. Larson is a psychiatrist and is Director of Tennessee's Maximum Security Hospital at Memphis, Tennessee.

Captain C. N. Joseph of Camp Gordon, Georgia, writes on the "Analysis of Compensatory Responses and Irregularities in Polygraph Chart Interpretation." This is a most interesting article on the need to ascertain just why and when certain reactions take place and what bearing they might have on chart interpretation. Joseph discusses the reasons for and the results of misunderstandings during an examination.

Traditionally, the critics of Polygraph Interrogation have advanced the argument that it is an unscientific method in which the results reflect nothing more than an educated guess on the part of a pseudo-expert. Those in a position best to evaluate such criticism, the operators themselves, realize that the claim is not always and everywhere unfounded. The appearance of this small monograph is therefore a good omen; it graphically illustrates the scientific approach and the serious intentions of men of outstanding ability who are continuing to evaluate the policies and practices in this field.

It is the opinion of this reviewer that every polygraph operator should read this book. The opening article, "Our Challenge," by Mr. C. B. Hanscom, Director, Department of Protection and Investigation, University of Minnesota, is not only a challenge to members of the Academy but to all examiners who are desirous of establishing a scientific basis for the polygraph.

JOHN C. RAPP
Detective Sergeant
Buffalo Police Department

Edward C. Fisher: RIGHT OF WAY IN TRAFFIC LAW ENFORCEMENT, 246 pp. St. Louis, Missouri, Thomas Law Book Co., 1956.

Right of Way in Traffic Law Enforcement appears to be an attempt to clarify the difficult matter of determining "right of way" and includes a discussion of various state laws regarding this problem and right of way cases in the several states. Although there is a good deal of variance in the laws, the courts have agreed fairly well on most points.

All through the book accent is placed on attempting to clarify for the driver of the vehicle the question as to who has the right of way. In most states and courts the driver is presumed to know and to understand the traffic laws including right of way. Speed is stated as a cause in many accidents when actually very often the cause of the accident is the failure of one or more of the drivers to understand who should yield right of way and, what is probably more important, why. One of the problems involved is that rolling enforcement of this type of violation is difficult. Most courts are ruling that a vehicle which has stopped at a stop sign does not have an automatic right to proceed until it is safe to do so without creating a hazard to other vehicles. A vehicle which has stopped and then becomes involved

in an accident is presumed to have usurped the right of way.

Where "yield right of way" signs are used, it is usually covered in the state law. Being involved in an accident is prima facie evidence of violation of "yield" signs and has been so held by several courts in various states. Many authorities agree that the "yield right of way" sign will prove to be one of the most effective devices yet developed to control right of way and still move traffic efficiently. Most courts agree that right of way can be forfeited by excessive speed, no lights, or some other violation. In order to earn right of way, the driver should act or drive with reasonable care and prudence. Right of way may be waived, though mere hesitancy and caution should not be inferred as a waiver.

There is a good discussion and court cases on stop signs and reasons for stop signs. This often eliminates conflict by removal of all doubt as to where the right of way lies and why. Most courts seem to agree that the mere stopping at a stop sign does not then give an automatic right to proceed. Stop signs are a more positive means of saying who shall yield right of way.

Right of way in left turn cases is still confused. Most states tend to force the vehicle turning left to give complete right of way to the approaching vehicle. If an accident occurs, the turning vehicle is usually held at fault. Mention is made in several cases that the favored vehicle must be driving lawfully. Most courts agree that this is a difficult matter to decide in many cases.

In pedestrian right of way cases most courts properly take the attitude that the pedestrian must be protected to a greater degree due partly to the fact that his body is subject to far greater injury by contact with the vehicle than the driver of the vehicle could sustain. A pedestrian who lawfully enters and uses the pedestrian crossing has a right to complete crossing. It is interesting to note that some courts have held that a child propelling himself on a scooter or wagon is not a pedestrian. Also, that a pedestrian may yield the right of way to a vehicle. According to court rulings this does not mean that if a vehicle continues on in line of travel and the pedestrian stops to avoid being struck, that the vehicle is in the right. Most courts have held that a motorist must reasonably expect pedestrians to be using crossings and to be alert for them.

In summing up right of way, it is mandatory that the vehicle in disfavor must do more than merely look for vehicles in favor; he must observe carefully the location, speed and other conditions which would make his action hazardous. An accident in most cases will be prima facie evidence of right of way violation and poor judgment of speed is no defense. Drivers must expect hazards at all intersections.

There is a shortage of court cases in all states regarding right of way adjudicated criminal cases; most cases going through the courts are a result of civil actions. In civil cases these points are considered: 1. Did the driver have the right of way? 2. If he did, did he lose it by forfeiture? 3. Was he acting lawfully? These facts must be established before the case against the other driver can advance.

Right of Way in Traffic Law Enforcement is of value to judges, district attorneys and traffic officers in civil and criminal cases.

CAPT. A. ELLIS
Traffic Division
Fresno Police Department
Fresno, California

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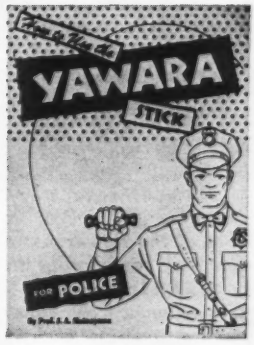

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The Policewoman

By Lois Lundell Higgins

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Lois Lundell Higgins, A.B., M.S.W., LL.D., is Director of the Crime Prevention Bureau of Illinois. Having served as Assistant Director at the inception of the Bureau in 1949, she became Director in March of 1951, simultaneously serving as crime prevention coordinator for the Municipal Court. Prior to being certified as a member of the Chicago Police Department, she served on the Municipal Court Social Service Department staff; as a Probation Officer for the Juvenile Court of Cook County, and as a Family Caseworker with the United Charities of Chicago.*

She is President of the International Association of Women Police, an active member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police; an associate member of the Illinois Association and an honorary member of the Indiana Association of Chiefs of Police. Dr. Higgins organized the Chicago Policewomen's Association and served as its first President, at the same time serving on the Executive Board of the Illinois State Policewomen's Association.

FORTY-SEVEN years ago Alice Stebbins Wells, a woman of refinement, culture and broad academic training, performed the first "do it yourself" act in crime prevention. The year was 1910. The occasion was a visit to the City Hall of Los Angeles. Armed with signatures of one hundred influential citizens, she asked for the opportunity to serve as a policewoman. It was logical, she reasoned, to have women offenders and young people handled by women officers. In addition, she was convinced that there was a type of policework which cannot and should not be performed by men. This "do it yourself" approach was effective and Mrs. Wells became the First Policewoman in the world.

The press enjoyed the innovation as indicated by the following typical reaction.

Address: Dr. Lois L. Higgins, Director, Crime Prevention Bureau of Illinois, 160 North La Salle Street, Chicago 1, Illinois.

"The appointment of Mrs. Wells attracted wide newspaper comment because of the fact that she was an educated woman, a social worker,

WOMEN IN LAW ENFORCEMENT*

The following information was received from questionnaires sent to Chiefs of Police and Sheriffs in the United States, regarding Policewomen, Police Matrons, Sheriffs and others: (Figures given are percentages).

1. STATUS

	Civil Service	*Merit*	*Patronage*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	48	13	1.0	38.0
Matrons	41	10	0.5	48.5

2. ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

	High School	*College*	*Not Specific*	*Registered Nurse or Practical Nurse*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	37	16	47	—	—
Police Matrons	33	2	35	4	26

3. AGE REQUIREMENTS

Policewomen		*Police Matrons*	
21-35—21	23-31— 1	21-29—1.4	25-40—8.0
25-35— 9	23-40— 1	21-35—8.0	25-55—1.4
21-31— 8	24-34— 2	21-40—1.4	30-37—1.4
21-39— 3	25-40— 1	21-45—4.2	30-40—1.4
21-30— 3	25-39— 1	21-50—1.4	35-50—1.4
21-32— 2	25-50— 1	21-60—1.4	40-51—1.4
23-30— 2	25-55— 1	23-33—1.4	No Specific Age—4.2
23-35— 2	26-35— 1	25-35—5.0	No Answer—53.0
25-40— 2	30-35— 1		
21-40— 2	35-40— 1		
21-50— 1	35-45— 1		
22-28— 1	No Specific Age—32		

4. RECRUIT TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	60	19	21
Police Matrons	25	56	19

5. IN SERVICE TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	62	20	18
Police Matrons	21	53	26

6. DUTIES TO WHICH WOMEN ARE ASSIGNED SOLELY

Policewomen		*Matrons*	
Regular Policewoman Duties	70	Escort and Custodial Care	62
Traffic	18		
Custodial	1		
Clerical and Custodial	5		
Clerical	3		
Court Records	1		
Dispatchers	1		
Social Investigator	1		

7. DUTIES PERFORMED BY WOMEN IN ADDITION TO REGULAR WORK

Policewomen		*Matrons*	
Radio Dispatcher	7	Clerical	12.0
Clerical Work	6	Medical Care	12.0
Fingerprinting	2	Dispatcher	5.5
Court Investigations	1	Police Work	5.5
Desk Sergeant	2	Booking	1.0
Custodial Care	2	Crossing Guard	1.0
Records and Identification	1	Matron at Dances	1.0
Secretary	1		
Social Adjustments	1		
Radio Sergeant	1		
Jail Matron	2		
Warrant Officer	1		
Supervision Matrons Div.	3		

8. SEPARATE DIVISIONS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	27	68	5
Police Matrons	31	56	13

9. UNIFORMS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*	*Special*
Policewomen	30	56	1	13
Matrons	32	56	12	

10. USE OF SQUAD CARS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	44	53	3
Police Matrons	9	71	20

11. SPECIAL POSITIONS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	8	89	3
Police Matrons		88	12

12. OPPORTUNITY FOR ADVANCEMENT

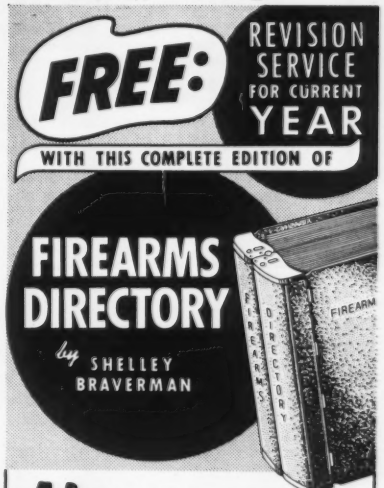
	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	21	39	40
Police Matrons	4	49	47

13. TITLE OR RANK HELD BY WOMEN

Policewomen		*Police Matrons*	
Policewomen or Patrolwomen only	29	Police Matrons	95.5
Asst. Policewomen	2	Policewomen	2.5
Juvenile Officer	18	Police Clerk	1.0
Detective	6	Sheriff Matron	1.0
Detective Lieutenant	1		
Sergeants	14		
Detective Sergeant	2		
Lieutenant	5		
Captain	6		
Traffic Guards, Meter Maids	12		
Social Investigators	1		
Matron-Clerk	2		
Deputy Sheriff	2		

14. ADVISE COLLEGE LEVEL TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	52	7	41
Police Matrons	22	12	66



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a theologian and had deliberately sought and secured the opportunity to work in a police department. Many journalists presented the situation in half comic manner and pictured the woman police officer in a caricature as a bony, muscular, masculine person, grasping a revolver, dressed in anything but feminine apparel, hair drawn tightly into a hard little knot at the back of the head, huge unbecoming spectacles, small, stiff, round disfiguring hat, the whole presenting the idea in a most repellant conception and unlovely guise. This, however, was not universally held and many groups of earnest women, searching for a solution of social problems greeted the idea of women police with favor and Mrs. Wells was soon overwhelmed with requests for lectures and advice.

Today there are more than 2,500 policewomen serving in at least 150 cities in the United States. In addition, there are more than 2,000 women serving as deputy sheriffs and in the Federal Departments with police functions, such as the Bureau of Customs and the Bureau of Immigration. Though women are also engaged in the custodial, clerical and administration phases of police service, who are not "police officers" in any sense, the number of policewomen amount to about 1 per cent of the total police profession. In my studies and visits abroad I learned of at least 2,850 policewomen outside of the United States.

The information contained in the following tables reveals the expanding role of policewomen in law enforcement organizations. The gradual but steady shift in police emphasis to delinquency and crime prevention portends a continued increase in the number of policewomen, and with sharpened professional qualifications to meet the need for marshaling the resources of the community in behalf of the youngster with problems, social, physical or mental, who stands to become the delinquent and criminal of tomorrow.

15. COLLEGE COURSES SUGGESTED FOR POLICEWOMEN AND POLICE MATRONS

Policewomen		*Matrons*	
Social Studies	29	Social Studies	10.4
Psychology	19	Psychology	8.0
Police Science, Criminology	15	Judo	1.4
Public Speaking	4	Nursing	6.0
Public Relations	4	Mental Health	2.8
Public Administration	1	Target	0.5
Nursing	1	Public Relations	1.0
Juvenile Delinquency Control	3	English	1.0
Filing, Typing, etc.	2	Juvenile Problems	2.5
Radio	1		
Liberal Arts	1		

POLICEWOMEN AND POLICE MATRONS OUTSIDE UNITED STATES

The following information was received from questionnaires sent to Chiefs of Police and Sheriffs outside of the United States regarding Policewomen, Police Matrons, Sheriffs and others: (Figures given are percentages).

1. STATUS

	Civil Service	*Merit*	*Patronage*	*Civil Service Emp.*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	—	—	—	—	100
Police Matrons	1	—	—	1.0	98

2. ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

	High School	*College*	*Registered Nurse*	*Not Specific*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	75	—	0.5	24.5	—
Police Matrons	—	—	—	55.0	45

3. AGE REQUIREMENTS

Policewomen	*Police Matrons*
21-29—9	21-35—10
21-30—9	30-40—10
21-31—9	No Specific Age—20
24-40—9	No Answer—60
25-35—9	
30-35—9	
No Specific Age—20	
No Answer—26	

4. RECRUIT TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	63	10	27
Police Matrons	11	56	33

5. IN SERVICE TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	73	—	27
Police Matrons	11	56	33

6. DUTIES PERFORMED BY WOMEN

Policewomen	*Police Matrons*
General Police Work	Custodial and Escort Only
Crime Prevention	
Court Service	
Clerical	
Assist at Public Ceremonies (Indonesia)	
Care of Mentally Ill (Sweden)	
Public Relations	

7. SEPARATE DIVISIONS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	—	—	—
Police Matrons	—	—	—

8. UNIFORMS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	9	36	55
Police Matrons	67	22	11

10. USE OF SQUAD CARS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	45	45	10
Police Matrons	—	89	11

11. SPECIAL POSITIONS

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	—	10	90
Police Matrons	—	90	10

12. OPPORTUNITY FOR ADVANCEMENT

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	25	20	55
Police Matrons	20	10	70

13. TITLE OR RANK HELD BY WOMEN

Policewomen	*Police Matrons*
Chief Superintendent	Matrons—80
Superintendent	No Ans.—20
Chief Inspector	
Constable	
Lieutenant	
Sergeant	
Detective Sergeant	
Patrol Women	
Investigator	

14. ADVISE COLLEGE LEVEL TRAINING

	Yes	*No*	*No Ans.*
Policewomen	55	10	35
Police Matrons	23	10	67

15. COLLEGE COURSES SUGGESTED FOR POLICEWOMEN AND POLICE MATRONS

Policewomen		*Matrons*	
Public Speaking	20	Nursing	20
Nursing	20	Psychiatry	10
Social Studies	35	Psychology	10
Police Science	20		
Law	20		
Welfare	10		

NOTES:

Indonesia—Policewomen were clerks or teachers. In 1951 they were sent to Police Training Center in Sukabumi (West Java)—then sent to the field as Women Police Officers.

Sweden—All Policewomen are Registered Nurses . . . must be able to take care of mentally ill.

England—In addition to salary, free living quarters or rent allowance provided.

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POLICE TOLD TO STATE CLEARLY WHEN ARRESTING SUSPECTS AT HOME

Quoting a recent letter from U. S. Attorney Oliver Gasch, Metropolitan Police Chief Robert V. Murray has issued a memorandum outlining "ground rules" to follow when arresting a suspect in his home.

The memorandum and letter were based on a case that was lost in court because detectives didn't say enough before making an arrest.

If officers have a warrant, say: "Police. Open the door. I have a warrant for your arrest." Or, "I have a warrant for the arrest of John Doe."

If the police have probable cause to arrest without a warrant, they should say: "Police, Open the door." Then name the person to be arrested and tell him he is under arrest.

". . . Should admission be denied, it is felt that the officer could legally enter the premises by force and remove the defendant therefrom."

The memorandum arose from a recent Supreme Court case (William Miller vs. United States), decided June 23.

Police went to the home of the defendant and knocked on the door. When asked who was there, the reply was: "The police."

The defendant tried to close the door but the officers forced their way in.

The court noted the police neither demanded admission nor stated their purpose. They failed to place the defendant under arrest until after entering the apartment.

"The court held," Mr. Gasch wrote, "that the rule seems to require notice in the form of an express announcement by the officers for their purpose in demanding admission and that a few more words by the officers in that case would have satisfied the requirements."

Modern Handwriting Analysis (Graphology)

Status, Usefulness, and Potential

By J. L. St. John

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second article to appear in the* JOURNAL *on the subject of handwriting analysis (see the May-June 1958 issue of* POLICE*). It is significant that, in both instances, the authors are men with a Ph.D. background. Dr. St. John, according to* WHO'S WHO IN AMERICA*, graduated from Purdue University and later took the Ph.D. degree at the University of Minnesota. Author of more than 120 scientific papers and some 300 other scientific publications, he served as Chemist at Purdue University, the University of Illinois and was Chairman of the Department of Agricultural Chemistry at the State College of Washington and State Chemist of Washington. He retired in 1956.*

Partly as a result of long experience in employing personnel, Dr. St. John became interested in handwriting analysis. He has studied rather widely in this field and has been analyzing handwriting for several years.

It is a part of JOURNAL *policy to encourage research effort in those areas which invite exploration and it is not at all unlikely that the publication of these materials may enlist the interest of others in evaluating the potential of this investigative technique.*

HANDWRITING is one widely used method by which man expresses, communicates, and permanently records his thoughts and emotions. People are quite generally judged by gestures, facial expression, speech, appearance, walk, and mannerisms. Handwriting is permanently recorded gesture. In general it would seem at least as logical to judge an individual by his handwriting as it is to judge him by other gestures. But since writing is a more specific and informative method of conveying thoughts and emotions it would seem definitely logical to judge character traits by the analysis of the handwriting.

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Evidence of its value has accumulated through more than one hundred years of experience and careful and critical psychological study. Preyer, one of the pioneers of scientific graphology said in 1895 that "handwriting is brain writing." Much carefully controlled scientific research work has been done in the last seventy-five years, particularly in Europe, which has been reported in hundreds of scientific articles. This work has been summarized by many authors in recent and earlier books, a few of which are listed in the attached literature citations.

No two people are alike. No two people write alike. Practically no one, even the expert forger, can successfully disguise his own handwriting, or imitate another's writing. Once you know a person's handwriting it can practically always be recognized unless the person has become physically or mentally ill. In general it can be recognized by those who have no training in handwriting analysis. Handwriting is an individualistic expression, even in the face of the many types of variations that occur in the person's writing. These facts further support the conclusion that a careful analysis of the writing by a capable analyst trained in modern handwriting analysis, rather generally called graphology, can secure useful and reasonably accurate information regarding the personality and character traits of an individual.

Psychology has investigated various methods for the measurement of both personality and intelligence, and has made good progress in a difficult field which is handicapped by the great difficulty of setting up adequate research controls for comparison. The I.Q. method designed to secure certain types of information regarding intelligence is widely known. The Rorschach test for personality study was published in 1921 and is based on the patient's spontaneous reaction to a series of standard ink blots. It has since been quite extensively studied and is rather widely used by psychologists and psychiatrists as a standard procedure. It requires several hours to make the measurements and interpret the results, and published literature points out that intuition is needed by the interpreter. Several other types of personality tests are used.

Personality testing is handicapped by the rather severe lack of agreement among psychologists on basic theories of personality as proposed by Freud, Adler, Jung, Rank, Horney and others and summarized by Mullahy. Thus, the goal to be attained by any projective technique may lack desirable clearness and objectivity. This is likewise a handicap for handwriting analysis, although research and long experience have furnished much evidence that the latter is distinctly useful for various practical purposes.

Early experiences with handwriting analysis dating back to the seventeenth century were summarized and organized by Michon and published in 1884 in his *Systeme de Graphologie*. This system was based on the premise that an individual sign or stroke in the writing was a definite indication of a single character trait. This would not seem

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psychologically sound and was soon repudiated by Michon's students, although vestiges of it under one or another trade name seem to flourish, even to the present time. Michon's work was a definite contribution in 1880, but more than 75 years of study and experience has developed a modern handwriting analysis, graphology, which looks at handwriting as a whole. This is a vast improvement over the very old-fashioned "sign equals trait" type of analysis which at best can give only a generalized classification of individuals based on a list of character traits about which one may speculate.

Not only is the present use of such old-fashioned handwriting analysis unfortunate in view of the much greater usefulness, flexibility, rapidity, and accuracy of modern graphology, but it lends itself to misuse as a fortune telling device partly because of the limited training required. Further, too many people have thus formed an incorrect opinion regarding the reliability and validity of modern handwriting analysis. Fortunately, however, the value of graphology is recognized by many capable psychologists as summarized in the attached literature citations, and as demonstrated by many scientific publications which appear in American, but primarily European, psychological and related journals.

What types of useful information are furnished by an analysis of a person's writing? Space limits this discussion to a brief mention of a few characteristics. Is the person actually self reliant, cool, calm, and self possessed as he appears, or is he basically ruled by his emotions, perhaps even to the point of being somewhat unpredictable, even though he has schooled himself to appear self-reliant? Does he have drive, imagination, initiative, and diplomacy, or is he actually lazy and cunning rather than diplomatic? Is he an intelligent type, and a logical, intuitive, and clear thinker, or is he a confused person who has made some progress partly on the basis of luck?

Does he have an inner feeling of inferiority, or in contrast, a feeling of superiority? Is he basically an honest type, dependable, and discrete, or rather on the cunning deceptive side and one who might stretch the facts to suit his needs or purpose? Does he desire a position of leadership, or would he be better fitted to a permanent position in the ranks? Has he developed a personality maturity comparable with his years, or is he relatively immature although advanced in years? What type of work does he like best as determined by his basic attitudes and desires? Is he primarily interested in intellectual or idealistic types of occupation, or is he basically much better fitted for the practical everyday type of position, or one involving physical activity?

Is he the friendly outgoing type of person as he appears, who likes to be with and work with people, or below the surface does he really much prefer to be alone and work alone? Where would he be happier and more efficient? Would he work better behind a desk, where people come to him, or should he be placed in a position to meet the public and promote public relations? Are there evidences in his writing of tension, temper, and emotional problems? These and many other characteristics could be discussed at length. Practical information obtainable by handwriting analysis and the consideration of the various characteristics possessed by an individual in relation to each other can be definitely helpful in many situations. Such information can be secured by a capable analyst in a comparatively short time at a moderate cost.

Handwriting analysis is easy to use, simple to apply, and requires no costly equipment. Specimens for practical use and for experimental work are easy to obtain. The specimen must be representative, and spontaneously written, not copied. The specimen should be on unruled bond paper. A nib pen (not ballpoint) should be used. It should be a pen that the writer "likes," that "fits his hand," one that he would select to buy. The person need not

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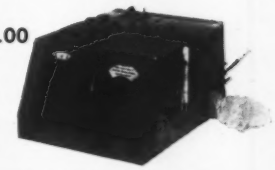

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know that his writing is to be analyzed, and he is thus not under emotional stress for this reason. The minimum specimen should be 25 to 50 words, with name and address. A longer specimen is desirable, and there should be several specimens written at different times if the analysis is to be comprehensive and of the greatest accuracy obtainable. The age and sex of the person should be known to the analyst. He should also be informed if the person is left handed. These requirements are not imperative but they add to the accuracy and value of the analysis.

The experienced analyst sees a Portrait of Character Traits in a specimen of writing. Outstanding traits are readily evident, and others become evident on study. This Portrait, of course, gives much more information with greater accuracy than a photograph of the person. It enables one to Know People Better. An analysis cannot be expected to be 100 per cent accurate or complete. Personality is much too complex for this. Neither is the Rorschach or any other projective technique or the I.Q., complete or perfect.

In fact all methods together, including handwriting analysis, do not, of course, and probably never will closely approach a 100 per cent diagnosis. We are exploring the human mind and not the physical. However a review of recent scientific literature reveals that many openminded psychologists believe that handwriting analysis seems destined to take an equal place among the other projective techniques for personality diagnosis. Readers desiring further information should consult papers in such journals as *Character and Personality, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, American Journal of Psychiatry,* both the *Third and Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbooks,* in addition to the books listed below and the hundreds of scientific articles and the other books available.

Assuming the required training and experience, the most important factor in the selection and administration of personnel is personality. Securing valid and reliable information regarding character traits has been most difficult. In applications, questionnaires, and interviews the applicant naturally "puts his best foot forward." He selects references believed to be favorable. Independent investigations also have their limitations in determining the actual inherent characteristics of an individual. This applies to applicants for positions from caretaker to president. The traits required vary with the type of position, and there seems to be needed for a more careful and extensive exploration and definition of the specific requirements for different types of positions. Handwriting analysis can aid in making this possible. Present methods of evaluation are known to fall short many times. Practical use of handwriting analysis has been found to have dollars and cents value in Europe and to some extent in this country in the selection and administration of both professional and business personnel.

There are other definite uses in both police and court work. Analysis can aid in the detection of inherent criminal tendencies and thus be of direct value in the identification of more probable suspects by detectives. One type of handwriting analysis has long been used as one of the tools in the detection of forgeries, although in one sense this is a less extensive and less difficult application of handwriting analysis in consideration of its total potential. Even expert forgers usually imitate the more noticeable features of the writing, but they leave clues in smaller detailed features in the writing which they cannot eliminate because these features are expressions of their own personality traits. Thus one who had studied handwriting analysis with the object of identifying character traits might seem to be in a better position to make identification of a forger than one who had studied analysis with the sole objective of identifying forgery. Lawyers have a problem regarding the dependability of their own clients. Also additional information on the personal characteristics of the witness on the stand is distinctly

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useful to the cross examining attorney. Police administration has the same problem as other employers in selecting dependable patrolmen and others, and in most effectively placing them in the position best suited to the man.

There are other uses for handwriting analysis for police, court, and social work. It can be directly helpful in dealing with marriage problems and other family problems. More concrete information regarding the personal characteristics of the individuals concerned may frequently be one key to effective counselling. It may also be an effective aid in the inevitable adjustments after marriage thus helping to prevent marriage and family problems. It can help in situations with problem children in both home and school. Self analysis can help in personal problems and adjustment to environment. It can aid in many types of human relations. Use of handwriting analysis in vocational guidance is a corollary to personnel selection and administration.

Administrative problems with employees many times result from the clash of two personalities. Additional information on character traits would naturally aid in the solution of such a problem. Analysis has value in the field of credit rating. A phase of vocational guidance is the screening of college students, more particularly for different types of professions such as, for instance, engineering, mathematics, art, music, dentistry, and police science. Analysts with the needed background can be effective in this area. This should receive particular consideration in the present educational situation.

At least one authority in the field who has published many papers and books and who has had long practical experience is reported to have used handwriting analysis to make reasonably valid predictions of intelligence, similar to I.Q. measurements, although it has ordinarily been used more in the field of personality diagnosis and identification of character traits. Handwriting analysis is used by some psychiatrists to materially speed up diagnosis. In general, handwriting analysis is reported to have been used more extensively in Switzerland than the Rorschach. When the professional analyst finds evidence of either physical or mental illness he recommends that the client consult an M.D. or a psychiatrist. He may do consulting and counseling work in other situations provided he has the requisite training and experience.

Like other projective techniques, and other fields, there is room for progress. Many phases of chemistry have been revolutionized during the writer's lifetime. In 1915 the atom was "known" to be indivisible, the ultimate particle of matter. Today the papers, magazines, and TV are full of stories regarding the results of splitting the atom. From recent reports there appear to have been rather marked changes in psychiatry regarding the concept of the nature of mental illness, and the recommendation that the old favorite terms such as schizophrenic, psycho-

sis and others be discarded in favor of the concept that "all mental illness essentially is of the same *quality*, but it differs quantitatively." Also the effectiveness of some therapeutic treatments has been seriously questioned.

It is difficult to understand the prejudice shown toward handwriting analysis by some who have had little or no training and no actual personal experience in using this particular projective technique. It is easier to understand why some individuals seem to instinctively react against handwriting analysis possibly because of a fear of the unknown or a reluctance to face squarely the information that may be made available. It is logical to recommend that methods of personality diagnosis for which the *a priori* evidence is very good, and which is supported by much practical experience and research, such as handwriting analysis, should be utilized and further studied. We should not ignore or neglect this useful projective technique which has as much and possibly more potential than any presently known.

Why handwriting analysis has not been more intensively studied and used in this country, as it has been in Europe, is very difficult to understand. Research work such as that reported by Hull and Montgomery in 1919 was poorly designed and controlled. One with an adequate background in handwriting analysis, or in psychology, would have predicted that this experiment would show a low, or perhaps negative, coefficient of correlation. It actually shows primarily that the old-fashioned graphology of Michon, long abandoned by modern graphology, produced results of low validity and reliability. The writer has many times ventured the statement that if one half the money and time which has been spent on the Rorschach since 1921, had rather been spent on the long established projective technique of handwriting analysis we would have a method of much greater value.

Police Administrators and others should make sure that they are actually using modern handwriting analysis, graphology, which has been psychologically developed and advanced much beyond the old-fashioned "sign equals trait" type which is psychologically questionable and which may be taught by mail order courses. They should employ analysts trained by the methods described and summarized by the books and papers to which reference is here made. Handwriting analysis is taught in most European Universities and in some American Universities and accredited colleges by men with a psychological background.

Handwriting has a marked potential for various purposes. It can be rather easily used to supplement other methods of personal and personality evaluation. At present it supplements but does not replace other methods also long in use. Its value and use have long been neglected in this country. Based on many years in the critical evaluation of a subject while directing scientific research, and following some years of critical study and use of handwriting analysis, the writer has become progressively more convinced of its value and usefulness. He has yet to learn of a person who has an adequate background of training including psychology and has intensively studied the subject and had adequate experience in making analyses over a period of years, who is not likewise convinced. More uniformly fixed and accepted theories of personality would give handwriting analysis a firmer base on which to work. Let psychologists, psychiatrists, sociologists, and other applied professions make profitable use of this useful tool. At its present level it can net important results in many situations. Police Science could well lead in the further development and practical utilization of a modern projective technique, graphology, which has demonstrated and further potential value.

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Dr. Herbert S. Player, Stockton, California, optometrist, asked head athletic trainers to report their experience with players wearing contact lenses.

Columbia University led the list with 12 football players wearing contact lenses in 1957. In 60 Colleges and Universities reporting, the number of football players with contact lenses rose from 144 in 1956 to 162 in 1957. Among basketball players, the increase was from 43 to 63. In other sports the increase between 1956 and 1957 was from 62 to 91. Yale had 8 football players and 20 in other sports wearing contact lenses in 1957. Elmer Brown of Texas Christian reported that no player is accepted who wears glasses, and contact lenses make additional athletes available.

NEWS and ANNOUNCEMENTS

IMPACT OF MALLORY DECISION SPREADS TO OTHER STATES

The Supreme Court's decision in the Mallory case is now being felt all over the country, The Washington *Evening Star* reported last month in an article written by Miriam Otenberg.

The disclosure came about when two Senators proposed that any legislation clarifying the decision should apply to the District of Columbia on the premise that this city alone is affected.

According to *The Star* article, the Supreme Court's 1957 decision that a confession must be excluded from a Federal trial if there was a delay between arrest and arraignment has produced these results outside the District:

In at least five cases, confessions have either been excluded because of the Mallory decision or convictions have been set aside because the confession should have been excluded.

Three appellate courts have joined the District in decisions stressing strict adherence to the Mallory ruling.

Several prosecutors have reported declining to prosecute cases because they knew the confessions would be excluded and they needed these admissions to bolster their cases.

A February poll of prosecutors made by the Justice Department at the request of a Senate Judiciary subcommittee showed that 14 prosecutors at that time either expressed fears about the impact of the decision in their areas or specifically recommended clarifying legislation. Three more prosecutors told *The Star* recently they now believe legislation is necessary.

Case Tells Story

This case tells the story:

In a routine search of the French ship, Liberte, New York Customs Inspectors discovered packages containing 600 watch movements under the floorboard of a locker in a ship musician's room. Customs agents were called and awaited the return of the musician.

When the musician came to his cabin, it developed that he spoke only French. The chief musician was then called to act as interpreter. The musician at first denied he was trying to smuggle the watch movements, but, according to the evidence, he admitted the smuggling plan after 30 minutes of questioning. Within 90 minutes, the judge was later told, the musician gave a written statement to the captain.

A New York Federal judge ruled in April that both the oral and written statements had to be withheld from the jury because of the Mallory decision. States in which the ruling has been felt include Colorado, Illinois, Massachusetts, Maryland, Texas, West Virginia and Indiana.

WHITE HOUSE FORCE DEVELOPMENT OUTLINED

Beginning about 1860 and up to World War I, a small force of police officers was detailed to the White House. During World War I, the Detail was increased to 54 men.

These officers were members of the Metropolitan Police Force and were under the direction of the District Commissioners and the Major and Superintendent of Police.

In 1922, President Harding expressed an interest in having a separate and distinct police force at the White House and a bill was introduced in the Congress providing for the creation of the White House Police Force. The measure became law on September 14, 1922, and provided that the White House Police Force was to be under the control and supervision of the President of the United States or his designated representative. The Act further provided that the members of the force were to be appointed from the Metropolitan Police Force and the U. S. Park Police Force and that they would possess powers and privileges and perform duties similar to the members of the Metropolitan Police Force.

Park Officers Selected

The President's military aide was named as the first supervisor of the White House Police which then consisted of 33 men. Many of the original members of the force had been detailed to the White House for many years as Metropolitan Police Officers and transferred to the new organization. Three of the original force were selected from the U. S. Park Police.

In order that members of the force might receive one day off a week, on December 5, 1924, Congress passed legislation providing for six additional men bringing the strength of the force up to 39 men.

In 1930, President Hoover recommended that the White House Police be placed under direct control and supervision of the Chief of the U. S. Secret Service, a branch of the Treasury Department, in order to bring Presidential Protection under the direction of a single organization. Accordingly, on May 14, 1930, Congress passed legislation to give effect to the President's recommendation and the same week authorized an increase in the force to 48 men effective July 1, 1930. This legislation also created the position of Captain as Commanding Officer.

The enlargement of the executive offices brought about a need for additional men and on May 28, 1935, Congress passed legislation increasing the force to 60 men.

War Brings Increase

Due to unsettled conditions stemming from the outbreak of war in Europe, authority was again requested to increase the size of the force and on April 22, 1940 legislation was passed providing for an increase of 20 men and as of July 1, 1940, the authorized strength of the force became 80 men. Following the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, and the declaration of war, it became necessary to reinforce the White House with officers detailed from the Metropolitan and Park Police in order to meet the emergency security demands. This, however, was simply an emergency measure and on March 10, 1942, Congress authorized a force of 140 men and made provision for the position of Inspector as the rank of the Commanding Officer.

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II, the force was cut back to a maximum strength of 110 men. However, with subsequent legislation providing for a five-day work week and the need for additional security posts as determined to be essential after the attack on the life of President Truman in November of 1950, Congress, on June 28, 1952, approved Public Law 418 authorizing a maximum strength of 170 men. The Commanding Officer of the force now holds the rank of Major with an Inspector second in command.

The White House Police provides protection for the President and his family while in residence, protection of the White House Executive Offices, and grounds, and performs such other duties as may be assigned by the Chief of the U. S. Secret Service. These duties require close cooperation and coordination of the Secret Service White House Detail. The White House Police is a well trained and equipped force firmly dedicated to the fulfillment of its important responsibilities and the force takes great pride in its tradition and reputation as a police organization.

CITY OF FORT PIERCE, FLORIDA, ACCEPTING APPLICATIONS FOR CHIEF OF POLICE

Following are requirements for the qualifications for the position of Police Chief for the city of Fort Pierce, Florida, as outlined by Mr. Robert L. Brunton, Assistant Director, The International City Managers' Association.

"This is a responsible administrative work in the direction of all activities of the city police department. Work involves responsibility for supervision of all police functions of the city. Compensation ranges from $465 to $585 per month."

Chief of Police R. F. Cassens resigned his position, and the City Manager is anxious to fill the position as soon as possible.

NEW YORK CITY POLICE AND HEALTH DEPARTMENTS LAUNCH JOINT RESEARCH PROJECT IN TRAFFIC SAFETY

Police Commissioner Stephen P. Kennedy and Dr. Leona Baumgartner, Commissioner of Health, have announced the inauguration of a joint research project concerning the drunken driver and traffic safety. The two departments will make a comprehensive six-month study of 500 drivers arrested for operating a motor vehicle while intoxicated in an effort to ascertain the whys and wherefores of their actions, and to provide new ways and means to cope with the problem.

This will be the second joint study in the field of traffic safety. On June 30, the Police Department began a study of pedestrian fatalities in cooperation with the Chief Medical Examiner's Office and the Division of Epidemiologic Research of Cornell Medical College.

The new study will seek to systematically categorize all accidents involving drunken drivers, determine the relationship of the blood alcohol level to each accident category and to ascertain whether the drunken driver is a social or a problem drinker. The study will also include an attempt to secure information on the use of barbiturates and tranquilizing drugs, as well as some of the drugs used in the treatment of allergies and their relationship, if any, to vehicular accidents.

The initial investigation by the Police Department will be performed by the personnel of the intoxicated Drivers Testing Unit and the Accident Investigation Squad. These units will file a comprehensive report on each drunken driver arrested, and when the arrest is coupled with an accident, a comprehensive report of the accident. Members of the Department of Health Division of Environmental Sanitation will cooperate with the police in the evaluation and analysis of the data obtained.

The methodology of the project involves a preparation of forms by the police personnel in all cases in which arrests are made for driving while intoxicated, and in which a chemical test is given. The data from these forms will be compiled by modern I.B.M. procedures, and the initial evaluation and analysis will be made by the Research and Development Unit of the Police Department's Police Academy. Since each questionnaire will be accompanied by the results of the chemical test, a definite correlation between the blood alcohol level and the type and severity of the accident can be established. The Department of Health will be particularly concerned with the relation of the drinking habits of the drivers to the intake of alcohol leading to the accidents.

Initially, accidents will be classified in approximately thirty (30) categories by place of occurrence in relation to the physical characteristics of the roadway, by severity, and by the actions of the driver(s) or pedestrian involved.

"The drunken driver is a known menace to every highway user," Commissioner Kennedy said. "Yet little is known about the relation of various levels of intoxication to the different types of accidents, and practically nothing is known about the drunken driver's drinking habits. This case study will provide data giving us more knowledge about accidents caused by drunken drivers. It should also point the way to an earlier identification of drunken drivers by police officers before accidents occur, and to possible remedial action in the fields of education and legislation."

NEW SIRENO SKY-LIGHTER COMBINES RED AND WHITE LIGHTS

"The Sky-Lighter" 360° revolving light features:

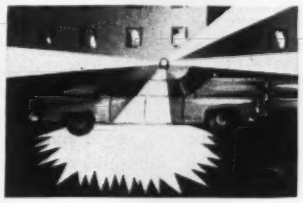
1. First perfect combination of conventional red revolving light with new "high intensity" white light.

2. First revolving light which actu-

ally illuminates the emergency vehicle on which it is mounted.

3. First revolving light which gives visual warning to vehicles, even when emergency car is hidden from view by hills, traffic, etc.

An entirely new and revolutionary concept in warning for men, vehicles, and equipment.



Consider the problems that an emergency vehicle faces on today's streets and highways; you will readily agree that a new and drastically different approach must be taken to safeguard men and equipment. . . .

NEW PORTABLE POLYGRAPH

A fully portable, AC powered polygraph has recently been developed and announced by Associated Research, Incorporated, manufacturer of the Keeler Polygraph.

Housed in an attractive, inconspicuous attaché case of simulated leather, this lightweight polygraph is designed for field interrogations, and can be carried as a piece of luggage. Accessories are contained in the case.

Two pens are provided, for recording breathing and blood pressure/pulse rate. The chart paper is fed through a new toploading kymograph section, and is clearly visible at all times.

Model 6305 Keeler Polygraph is prices $750 and is normally available from stock. New Bulletin 6-1.2 is available from Associated Research, Incorporated, 3777 West Belmont Avenue, Chicago 18, Illinois.

THE ADVERTISING SPECIALTY GUILD OF AMERICA SPONSORS "BACK THE ATTACK ON ACCIDENTS" CAMPAIGN

Chicago—Robert Seltzer (left), President of the Advertising Specialty Guild of America, presents an auto visor tissue pak to Paul Jones, Public

Information Director of the National Safety Council. The tissue pak imprinted with "Back the Attack on Traffic Accidents" will be used in support of the nationwide Stop Accidents Campaign conducted jointly by the Advertising Council, Inc., and the National Safety Council.

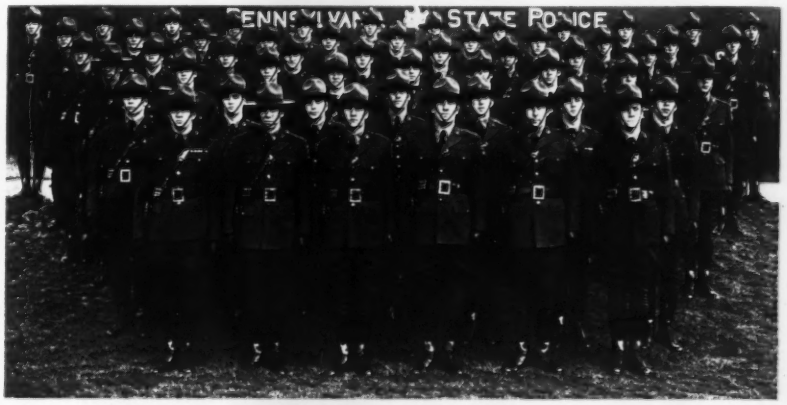
The occasion was the kickoff of a public service project in which the Advertising Specialty Guild of America plans to distribute advertising specialties to help promote various campaigns conducted by the Advertising Council, Inc.

DIENSTEIN RECEIVES KEY APPOINTMENT

Professor William Dienstein of Fresno State College, Fresno, California, well known in law enforcement circles throughout the country and Editor of the Book Review Section recently launched in POLICE, has been appointed by Governor Knight of California as a member of THE SPECIAL STUDY COMMISSION ON JUVENILE JUSTICE.

The Commission is authorized and instructed to study, evaluate, and make recommendations respecting all matters related to juvenile justice and the protection of minors together with general problems involved and dealing with dependent children, minor offenders, against the laws including their apprehension, detention, prosecu-

54 GRADUATE FROM PENNSYLVANIA STATE POLICE TRAINING SCHOOL



Left to right, first row: Robert P. Klingaman, Gerald A. Flannery, John T. Motway, Ronald L. Lococo, James E. Fallon, and Joseph W. Frew. Second row: Clifford D. Lightner, James R. Padden, Paul J. Sita, James C. Patt, Frederick A. Kopfinger, James E. Bell, and John W. Salinkas. Third row: George E. Allen, William A. Smith, John L. Ziemba, Charles J. Draus, Nicholas G. Dellarciprete, Edgar Richards, Lex K. Miller, Gerald S. Clark, and Glen R. Cousins. Fourth row: John T. Minarcin, Gilbert J. Barker, Joseph A. Sadavage, Michael J. Holleran, Lee E. Quarry, Michael G. Drenshko, Darwin G. Polunchuk, Paul C. Kemp, and Frank J. Wasilko. Fifth row: Edward Walkiewicz, Joseph T. Vrabel, Robert T. Kovelskie, Phillip M. Bohr, Emilio B. Liberatore, Joseph J. Biro, Stanley H. Klopp, Francis X. Carroll, John S. Gencavage, Albert M. Broscius, and Carl M. Allen. Sixth row: Joseph W. Lapinski, Walter D. Cervik, Robert W. Jevelle, Joseph F. Dowd, Frederick E. Rehrig, Richard P. Harrington, Chester J. Kolbukowski, James E. Criswell, Francis W. Walton, James J. Illingworth, Torrence M. Stackhouse, and Stanley A. Cimochowski.

tion, supervision, treatment, and rehabilitation.

The scope of these inquiries will include but will not be limited to Juvenile Laws regarding:

1. Dependent and neglected children.
2. Revision to make possible for juvenile court to carry on modern concepts of treatment.
3. Protection of rights of children and parents; legal detention, right to counsel, bond, trial, calling of witnesses, access to findings.
4. Review of statutory provisions related to protective services.
5. Review laws permitting juvenile courts to engage in the prevention of juvenile delinquency.
6. Laws relating to children and youth (ages 16-21) with particular attention to disposition of cases involving extensive criminal activity or crimes of violence.
7. In addition to review of laws affecting juveniles, consideration of methods of their administration.
8. Labor laws affecting various ages of minors.
9. Laws of arrest, detention and treatment.
10. Analysis of present and desirable allocation of financial responsibility as between county and state jurisdictions.

Other members of the Commission are:

Mrs. Mildred M. Prince, Chairman; Mr. Robert Kingsley, Dean of Law School, University of Southern California; Mrs. Beulah K. Spencer; Mr. George Vaughns, Law office of Vaughns, Dixon and White, Oakland, California.

TWO NEW DRIVER EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS RELEASED

The Driving Research Laboratory at Iowa State College has just released two new evaluation instruments for automobile drivers under the authorship of Dr. A. R. Lauer. The two instruments are designed to measure the efficiency of performance at any given time, taking into account two factors. The first factor, Part I, is the person's native ability, or inherited behavior patterns which predispose him to be a good driver prospect. Part II takes account of skills that he has acquired through a given amount of experience.

Separate norms obtained from both of these are based on 349 drivers, obtained on an 8-mile test drive in an instrumented car. The norms have been translated, into percentile graph form, which shows how the driver stands with respect to any one hundred drivers in the population, after he is rated by the instructor or by the examiner.

The form is usable for measuring the development of driver training students, for evaluating prospective commercial driving employees, and for driver improvement programs. It is the first instrument of this type which has been developed and has twenty years of research preceding its release.

The companion instrument, to this evaluation procedure, is a driver reaction inventory which measures certain attitudes, predispositions and mental habits, with respect to driving and traffic situations. It includes fifty items, which give an evaluation of the person with respect to what is commonly called driving attitudes. Attitudes are presumed by traffic authorities to be more important than skills in keeping persons out of accident situations.

These two instruments give an overall evaluation of the driver, for those who wish to know his potentiality. The scores can be broken down, and are more or less diagnostic of the driver's basic capability, as well as his stage of advancement as accomplished by experience.

The Driving Research Laboratory has previously developed a battery of tests that is now being implemented by the Armed Forces, particularly by the Army. One set of tests is used to select drivers; the scores of which go on Form 20 of the soldier's record. Another test is used at a higher echelon, for the purpose of selecting drivers who are best qualified to drive the heavier pieces of equipment, commonly used in the artillery and other phases of national defense. The Army has predicted a substantial decrease in accidents through use of these tests.

The purpose of such devices is to reduce the problem of driver evaluation to a scientific basis. So far driver classification has been largely dependent upon opinion, and other indicators which are not reliable, or which may not give the same results from one time to another. The proper use of scientific tests by the drivers licensing bureaus might greatly reduce automobile accidents in the United States.

The two instruments just described are being published by the Iowa State College Press.

FEDERAL LABORATORES, INC. ANNOUNCES NEW TEAR GAS WEAPON

A new tear gas weapon which operates without noise or flame was announced by Federal Laboratories, Inc., Saltsburg, Pa. The new Federal No. 271 Tear Gas Dust Projector will fire up to ten bursts of highly effective tear gas dust and can be shut off at will.

This unit weighs less than 60 ounces and is only 8″ high by 5″ long by 2½″ thick. It is made of non-rusting alloys and is operated by simply opening and closing a valve. Tear Gas charges are simply dropped into the gas reservoir. The pressure cylinder can be reloaded locally.

This weapon, primarily for use in prisons, jails and other buildings where noise and flame are objectionable and small, controlled amounts of tear gas are required. The gas discharge consists of dry tear gas dust. The unit contains no liquid, glass vials, capsules or wads.

COMMITTEE ON WINTER DRIVING HAZARDS FINDS FACTS TO END PUBLIC CONFUSION

A commonly asked question—"What's the difference in performance between various tires and tire chains on snow and ice?"—has been answered through tests conducted by the Committee on Winter Driving Hazards of the National Safety Council.

The Committee, composed of 30 experts from all fields of automotive engineering, traffic safety and law enforcement, has issued a clarifying statement concerning stop-and-go help as follows:

Snow Tires?

Some say snow tires are good—others say snow tires are no good. Just what will snow tires do for you?

The better snow tires are a big help in loose snow and slush. They are not much better than regular tires, however, on ice or very hard packed snow.

Tread treatments of some types, known as "winterizing" give a small amount of tractive advantage on hard icy surfaces which might mean the difference between moving and not moving.

Tire Chains

Reinforced tire chains have each link of the cross chain reinforced by projecting teeth or cleats. They cut breaking distances in half on both snow and ice . . . increase traction to start or climb hills up to seven times over that with regular tires on ice . . . outpull regular tires nearly four times on packed snow.

On glare ice, reinforced tire chains reduce braking distances—have a much better resistance to side skids . . . increase forward traction better than anything tested.

Regular or round wire link chains provide good stop-and-go traction on snow and ice, but their side-skid resistance on ice is poor compared to reinforced tire chains.

Effect of Temperatures

Concerning the great effect of temperatures, the Committee points out that the difference between zero degrees and 30 above can increase skidding distances at only 20 mph by over 100 feet. Their statement follows:

"Temperature can change stopping distances on ice. Stopping distances are considerably longer when temperatures are near the melting point than when they are near zero. A small temperature rise or a little sunshine can make ice wet and slippery within a few minutes. Use of tire chains provides the shortest possible stopping distances, regardless of temperature."

Their tests prove that a car with new tires going at 20 mph on glare ice may stop at 114 feet at zero degrees, but the same car at the same speed takes 235 feet to stop at 30 degrees above zero. With reinforced tire chains, the braking distance was about 77 feet regardless of the varying temperatures.

Traction Facts

The Committee report illustrated various traction abilities and stopping distances on snow and ice with different commonly used equipment as follows:

Concerning starting and hill climbing traction ability on glare ice, tests showed snow tires are only 28% better than regular tires. Regular tire chains, however, were 231% better, while reinforced tire chains proved to have 409% better traction on ice than regular tires.

On loosely packed snow, snow tires were reported as 51% better while reinforced tire chains were rated at 313% improvement over regular tires.

Stopping Ability

Braking distances on loosely packed snow with various equipment at speeds of 20 mph were as follows: regular tires, 60 feet; snow tires, 52 feet; regular tire chains, 46 feet, and reinforced tire chains, 38 feet.

On Ice

On glare ice, however, average stopping distances at only 20 mph were dangerously longer. They follow: regular tires, 195 feet; snow tires, 174 feet; regular tire chains, 99 feet, and reinforced tire chains, 77 feet. While tests have shown snow tires provide added traction, tire chains were found to be far more reliable for both stop-and-go traction in deep snow, hard-packed snow and glare ice conditions.

Single copies of a report, entitled "How to Go on Ice and Snow," may be obtained free by writing National Safety Council, Chicago 11, Illinois.

EASTERN TERRITORY OF SEARS, ROEBUCK NEEDS SECURITY PERSONNEL

The Eastern Territory of Sears, Roebuck and Co. needs applicants for the positions of Security Manager and Security Manager Trainee. These positions encompass the supervision of the security of large Sears' units located in the Northeastern States. The jobs involve—

1. The prevention, apprehension and prosecution of shoplifters and employe thieves.

2. The prevention, investigation and adjustment of employe and customer accidents.

3. The prevention, investigation and prosecution of bad check passers.

4. Other investigational duties as may be assigned.

Applicants should be between 25 and 40 years of age, in good physical condition, and should have some experience or education along the lines of criminal investigations. College graduates are preferred, especially those with police majors. Applicants will be required to submit to a series of psychological tests.

Interested applicants may write to C. Gordon Smith, Security Manager, Department 766E, Sears, Roebuck and Co., P. O. Box 6742, Philadelphia 32, Pa.

NINETEENTH ANNUAL TENNESSEE LAW INSTITUTE HELD

Sponsored jointly by the University of Tennessee College of Law and the Knoxville Bar Association, the Nineteenth Annual Tennessee Law Institute was held in Knoxville, October 31. The sessions were devoted to the central theme—The Administration of Criminal Justice, with papers presented on Scientific Crime Detection, its medical and technical aspects, pre-trial tactics—including the Right to Counsel, Arrest and Seizure, Protection Against Self-Incrimination; Proposed Legislation to Limit the Mallory Decision, Developments in Double Jeopardy, Wiretapping and Eavesdropping; and Procedure in the Trial of Criminal Cases. Speakers well known in law enforcement circles appeared on the program. The Proceedings of the Institute will be published in the Winter Issue of the *Tennessee Law Review*, Volume 26, No. 2, 1959, copies of which may be obtained from the Tennessee Law Review Association, 1505 West Cumberland Avenue, Knoxville 16, Tenn. Professor Martin J. Feerick of the University of Tennessee College of Law, is Institute Director.

Now! POLICE OFFICERS in Every Locality May Have the Benefit of This ADVANCED TRAINING

"POLICE PRACTICE, PROCEDURE AND SCIENCE"

New "Pay-by-the-Lesson" Plan
NO BURDENSOME TIME PAYMENTS
Set your own study pace. You may take up to 2 years for completion of your course.
APPROVED FOR KOREAN VETS!
VA Pays Entire Cost of Training
A comprehensive correspondence course for Police Officers who wish to increase their technical knowledge and practical efficiency. While invaluable for promotional preparation, it is also of great advantage in the daily work and duties of Police Officers everywhere.
12 INTERESTING LESSONS
Test questions with each lesson are rated and returned to you with model answers.
2 WRITTEN TRIAL EXAMS
Rated and returned with individual comments and constructive criticism by examiners experienced in Police work.
Ask Your Own Superior Officers!
Send for Full Information and Detailed Outline of Course. Ask for Booklet P-3.

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CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL
Licensed by State of New York
113 E. 15th St., New York 3, N. Y.
OVER 85 % of N. Y. C. Police Officers are Delehanty Trained

KODAK ANNOUNCES DATES FOR NINTH AND TENTH SEMINARS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT PHOTOGRAPHY

Attention Law Enforcement Officers: Dates have been established for the Ninth and Tenth Seminars on Law

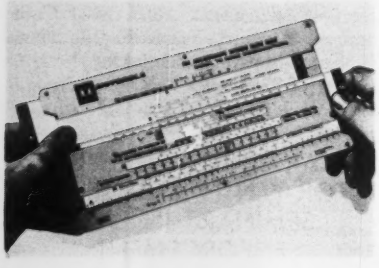
Enforcement Photography in Rochester, New York. The Ninth will be held the week of March 9-13, 1959 and the Tenth the week of November 30-December 4, 1959. This will complete five years of activity in this type of training program and with the completion of the two 1958 Seminars, over 285 identification officers and law enforcement photographers have attended these outstanding sessions. By the end of 1959, over 350 will have received this valuable training.

Enrollment is limited to about 35 men at each of these week-long meetings, and applications should be made as early as possible. There is no registration fee involved. However, those who attend pay their own travel and hotel expenses, or have them paid by their departments. Reservations are made for class members at the Powers Hotel in Rochester, where rates start at $6.50 a day for a single room, $9.00 for a double. Meals and tips run around $5.00 or $6.00 a day. This Kodak sponsored training program will be conducted as long as directors of law enforcement agencies, police chiefs, sheriffs, superintendents of state police, superintendents of identification bureaus and directors of crime laboratories are interested in sending their men in for this specialized instruction.

Inasmuch as only the first 35 or so who register can be accepted at any one Seminar, it is important that registrations be applied for promptly. Address all letters to Harris B. Tuttle, Consultant, Law Enforcement Photography, Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, New York.

NEW MICROWAVE SYSTEM SLIDE RULE DEVELOPED

Of interest to police communications officers, a new slide rule designed to simplify calculations for microwave



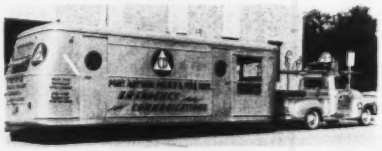
equipment users has been developed by Motorola engineers. The slide rule contains 28 scales on its two sides and can be used in calculating path loss, antenna gain, fade margin, carrier-to-noise ratio and other mathematical manipulations required for planning microwave communications systems.

One of its sides is used to calculate propagation characteristics over a broad range of microwave frequencies from 1,000 to 30,000 mc. Included are Fresnel zone clearance, path loss, antenna and reflector gain, beam width and other path parameters needed for system design. On the other side are scales for multiplex calculations including signal-to-noise ratio, carrier loading and other related factors for both FM and single sideband multiplex system performance calculations. Price of the Slide Rule is $5.00. It is available from the Microwave Sales Department, Motorola, Inc., 1450 North Cicero Ave., Chicago 51, Ill.

EMERGENCY POLICE AND FIRE COMMUNICATIONS

The day was June 27, 1957. Hurricane Audrey in all its fury, was only minutes away from Port Arthur, Texas, which lay directly in the storm's path.

By some quirk of fate, Audrey bypassed Port Arthur, striking instead at Cameron, Louisiana, leaving death, pestilence and destruction in its wake. Among the thousands who rallied to Cameron's aid were men sent to the



area by Port Arthur's police and fire chiefs.

There were some salient and somber facts to consider when these men returned from their errand of mercy. First, Port Arthur was definitely in the hurricane belt—and might not be so lucky next time. Secondly, should such a disaster strike, it was imperative that the city have emergency communications.

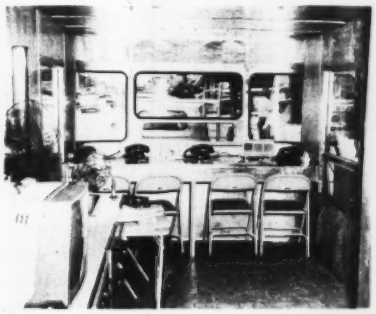
Following a meeting with the mayor and city commission, Police Chief G. B. Douglas and Fire Chief Eugene Ray decided to obtain and outfit an emergency communications trailer. A trailer 27 feet long and 8 feet wide was purchased and equipped as a communications center with Motorola 2-way radio base stations operating on six frequencies.

Eight Motorola mobile 2-way radio units were installed in school buildings that will serve as shelters for disaster relief.

The trailer's communications facilities serve the fire and police departments, the street and bridge department, the civil defense network and "hams," who proved so valuable at Cameron.

The trailer has six antennas on its top, for as many frequencies, and also power plugs on both ends for using regular or auxiliary power. The latter is supplied by eight 1500-watt gas driven power plants (110 volt AC).

Design of the trailer included space at its front for the fire and police chiefs to direct operations. The rear is



the primary communications center. The center portion of the trailer is used for storage of radio parts, flood lights and other necessary materials. The trailer also has a stainless steel sink and a tank for fresh water.

The pick-up truck which tows the trailer carries its own 5 kw power plant, gasoline tank and a rack on top to carry two antenna poles that will raise to 50 feet. Four powerful flood lights are mounted atop the truck.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE POLICE STAGE CARBON MONOXIDE DETECTION TESTS

Pennsylvania State Police recently conducted rigid carbon monoxide detection tests on 8,000 school buses throughout Pennsylvania during the month of August. The tests are the result of a new safety program instituted by the Bureau of Highway Safety.

Being used in the tests is a scientific carbon monoxide testing instrument introduced to 200 state police and state officials recently by O. D. Shipley, director of the safety bureau. The instrument, manufactured by Mine Safety Appliances Company of Pittsburgh, was demonstrated on a school bus at the Hershey State Police Train-

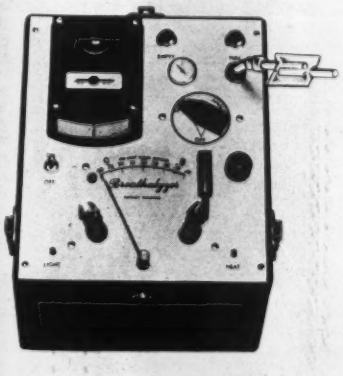
ing School. The device is so sensitive that it can measure the amount of carbon monoxide in cigarette smoke. Pennsylvania is believed to be the only state which has set up an official program of this type for school bus safety.

THE NEW DIRECT-RECORDING BORKENSTEIN BREATHALYZER

Law enforcement officers everywhere will be very much interested in a new feature recently added to the Borkenstein Breathalyzer—a small, compact device which determines alcoholic influence through a quick chemical analysis of the breath. It consists of a direct-recording system which has been incorporated into the Breathalyzer whereby you can now make a permanent record of the per cent of blood alcohol at the time of running the test. The indicator on the dial has been equipped with a small marker along with an inking pad enabling the operator to show graphically the blood alcohol per cent by printing it on a test record. This record is made of bank note paper and carries the name of subject, date, time and name of operator. On the reverse side of the record it is possible to put a finger print which, like the front side, is unalterable.

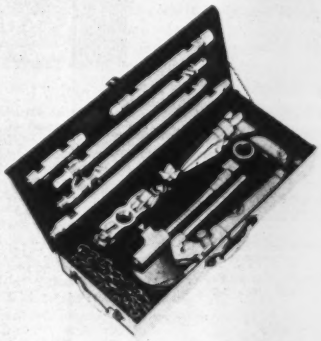
This form constitutes an exhibit which is part of the court record of the case, and further strengthens the quality of the evidence.

The Breathalyzer was designed and perfected by Lt. Robert F. Borkenstein, Director of the Scientific Laboratory, Indiana State Police, and one of the world's leading authorities and experienced teachers in the chemical breath testing field.



RESCUE KITS

A new Hydraulic Rescue Kit for fire departments, police squad cars, Civil Defense vehicles and industrial plants



is announced by Hein-Werner Corporation, Waukesha, Wis.

Basic tools and extensions are clipped in place in a steel box, a feature that saves valuable time when a life may be at stake. This also prevents tools being left behind, for a quick glance shows whether the equipment is complete. As a further convenience the Kit is provided with three handles suitable for one or two man carry.

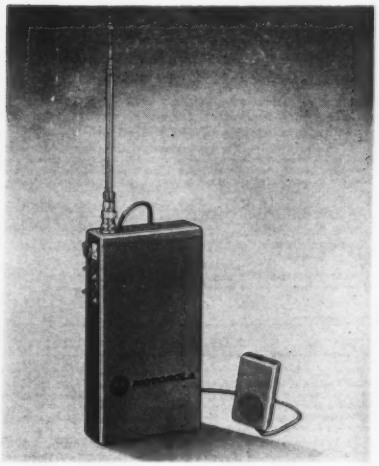
The hydraulic pump has a 4-ton capacity—ample for most emergencies. The container is compact and takes little room in motor vehicles. Similar Rescue Kits are also made in 10 and 20 ton sizes for use where there is a likelihood that such capacities will be needed.

Wide use for the Rescue Kit has been found in manufacturing plants for accidents where hydraulic leverage is needed to release a person trapped in an elevator or by fallen material.

As standby Rescue Equipment where constant portability is not a requisite, Hein-Werner also manufactures hydraulic jacks with suitable accessories in capacities up to 100 tons.

THE WRIST RADIO NEXT

The new Motorola "Handie Talkie" Pocket Receiver provides radio communications to the man on foot in police, fire, construction, mining and many other activities.



The subminiature Motorola "Handie Talkie" Pocket Transmitter, when used with the Pocket Receiver enables full convenient 2-way communications to the man on foot. The unit weighs less than three pounds and can be worn on one's belt.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SCHEDULES SEMINAR ON POLICE PLANNING AND RESEARCH

The School of Criminology in coordination with the School of Law at the University of California and the Training and Education Committee of the California Peace Officers Association, announces the Second Annual Seminar on POLICE PLANNING AND RESEARCH to be held in the Moot Court Room, Law School Building, University of California in Berkeley, November 17, 18 and 19, 1958, with Dean O. W. Wilson, School of Criminology as Coordinator. The program which follows is enough to indicate the scope and importance of this forthcoming Conference.

Monday, November 17

Address of Welcome: WILLIAM PROSSER, Dean, School of Law, 9:00
ALBERT N. BROWN, Deputy Commissioner, Administrative Services, Philadelphia Police Department
RESEARCH, ANALYSIS, AND PLANNING IN THE PHILADELPHIA DEPARTMENT, 9:10-10:00
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 10:00-10:20
Coffee Break, 10:20-10:40
ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL OF SICK LEAVE IN PHILADELPHIA, 10:40-11:30
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 11:30-12:00
JAMES GAMESON, Lieutenant Colonel, Chief of Staff Administration, Kansas City, Missouri, Police Department
OPERATION NIGHTWATCH AND OPERATION 200, 1:00-1:50
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 1:50-2:20
Coffee Break, 2:20-2:40
WYMAN W. VERNON, Chief of Police, Oakland
ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES IN THE OAKLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT, 2:40-3:30
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 3:30-4:00
Chief Vernon invites all participants to observe Nalline Tests at the Oakland City Hall, 5:00-6:00 to be followed by a visit to the Planning and Research Section, Police Headquarters, 14th and Jefferson Streets.

Tuesday, November 18

PATRICK V. MURPHY, Acting Captain, Training Officer, Police Academy, New York City Police Department
STIMULATING CREATIVE THINKING IN POLICE PERSONNEL, 9:00-9:50
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 9:50-10:20
Coffee Break, 10:20-10:40
IN-SERVICE TRAINING CONFERENCES FOR COMMAND PERSONNEL, 10:40-11:30
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 11:30-12:00
R. C. BLOSSOM, Captain, Research and Planning Division, California Highway Patrol
FIELD OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT TRAINING COURSE, 1:00-1:50
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 1:50-2:20
Coffee Break, 2:20-2:40
ROBERT KLUG, Lieutenant Colonel, Assistant Chief of Police, Cincinnati Police Department
EFFECTIVE METHODS FOR SELECTING AND TRAINING POLICE SUPERVISORS, 2:40-3:30
Discussion and Questions from Floor, 3:30-4:00

Wednesday, November 19

VERNON L. HOY, Sergeant in Charge Administrative Research Unit, Planning and Research Division, Los Angeles Police Department
STUDY OF POLICING NEEDS, 9:00-9:50
Discussion and Questions from Floor, 9:50-10:20
Coffee Break, 10:20-10:40
STUDY OF POLICING NEEDS, continued, 10:40-11:30
Discussion and Questions from Floor, 11:30-12:00
RICHARD E. McDONELL, Director, Planning and Research, Oakland Police Department
TIME ELEMENT AS A FACTOR IN DEPLOYMENT OF PATROL FORCE, 1:00-1:50
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 1:50-2:20
Coffee Break, 2:20-2:40
JAMES GAMESON, Lieutenant Colonel, Chief of Staff Administration, Kansas City, Missouri, Police Department
PLANNING POLICE COVERAGE IN ANNEXED AREAS, 2:40-3:30
Questions and Discussion from Floor, 3:30-4:00

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